

T H E

CRITICAL REVIEW.

For A U G U S T, 1793.

Works of the late Dr. Benjamin Franklin: consisting of his Life written by Himself; together with Essays, Humorous, Moral, and Literary, chiefly in the Manner of the Spectator. 2 Vols. 8vo. 7s. Boards. Robinsons. 1793.

THERE is no study more pleasing than biography, nor do modern times present us with a life more interesting than that of Dr. Franklin. To observe the progress of this singular character, from the obscure beginning of a journeyman-printer, to the first stations in the philosophical and political world; to trace the means by which he was able to effect his purposes, and the manner in which his vast abilities unfolded, is a most amusing speculation, grateful to curiosity, and encouraging to rising genius.

As, therefore, the life of this extraordinary character occupies the whole of the first volume of this publication, we shall for the gratification of our readers endeavour to exhibit a short abstract of it, though as it is not written in a prolix style, we would rather recommend the perusal of the whole. The Life as far as the year 1731, and to page 190 of the present volume, was written by Dr. Franklin himself, and was translated from the French by the present editor; the continuation is by the late ingenious Dr. Stuber of Philadelphia.

The ancestors of Dr. Franklin had lived upon a small freehold at Eaton in Northamptonshire, for about 300 years; they added to this petty resource the trade of a blacksmith, without which they could not have subsisted: the eldest son having been uniformly brought up to this employment. The doctor was the youngest son of the youngest branch, counting five generations. His father, Josias Franklin, went with his wife and three children to New England, about the year 1682, chiefly with a view of enjoying their religion unmolested, being Nonconformists. — By the same wife Mr. Franklin had four more children born in America, and ten by another, in all seventeen. The doctor was the youngest of all except two daughters, and was born at Boston in New England, in

C. R. N. ARR. (VIII.) *August*, 1793. C c 1706.

1706. He was sent at the age of eight years to a grammar school, his father intending him at that time for the church; but this scheme he was obliged to relinquish, and at ten, young Franklin was taken home to assist his father in his own business, that of a tallow-chandler.

As the business proved not very agreeable, young Franklin was desirous of going to sea, and to divert him from this project, his father placed him upon trial with his cousin Samuel, a cutler; but the premium required being too large, he was recalled home.

‘ From my earliest years, (continues the doctor) I had been passionately fond of reading, and I laid out in books all the little money I could procure. I was particularly pleased with accounts of voyages. My first acquisition was Bunyan’s collection in small separate volumes. These I afterwards sold in order to buy an historical collection by R. Burton, which consisted of small cheap volumes, amounting in all to about forty or fifty. My father’s little library was principally made up of books of practical and polemical theology. I read the greatest part of them. I have since often regretted, that at a time when I had so great a thirst for knowledge, more eligible books had not fallen into my hands, as it was then a point decided that I should not be educated for the church. There was also among my father’s books Plutarch’s Lives, in which I read continually, and I still regard as advantageously employed the time I devoted to them. I found besides a work of De Foe’s, entitled, an Essay on Projects, from which, perhaps, I derived impressions that have since influenced some of the principal events of my life.

‘ My inclination for books at last determined my father to make me a printer, though he had already a son in that profession. My brother had returned from England in 1717, with a press and types, in order to establish a printing house at Boston. This business pleased me much better than that of my father, though I had still a predilection for the sea. To prevent the effects which might result from this inclination, my father was impatient to see me engaged with my brother. I held back for some time; at length however I suffered myself to be persuaded, and signed my indentures, being then only twelve years of age. It was agreed that I should serve as apprentice to the age of twenty-one, and should receive journeyman’s wages only during the last year.’

Of his attempts at poetry the doctor gives a pleasant account, and congratulates himself on his father having laughed him out of that propensity.—Of the manner in which he acquired his talent for prose, the following is the history.

‘ There

* There was in the town another young man, a great lover of books, of the name of John Collins, with whom I was intimately connected. We frequently engaged in dispute, and were indeed so fond of argumentation, that nothing was so agreeable to us as a war of words. This contentious temper, I would observe by the by, is in danger of becoming a very bad habit, and frequently renders a man's company insupportable, as being no otherwise capable of indulgence than by indiscriminate contradiction. Independently of the acrimony and discord it introduces into conversation, it is often productive of dislike, and even hatred, between persons to whom friendship is indispensibly necessary. I acquired it by reading, while I lived with my father, books of religious controversy. I have since remarked, that men of sense seldom fall into this error; lawyers, fellows of universities, and persons of every profession educated at Edinburgh, excepted.

* Collins and I fell one day into an argument relative to the education of women; namely, whether it were proper to instruct them in the sciences, and whether they were competent to the study. Collins supported the negative, and affirmed that the task was beyond their capacity. I maintained the opposite opinion, a little perhaps for the pleasure of disputing. He was naturally more eloquent than I; words flowed copiously from his lips; and frequently I thought myself vanquished, more by his volubility than by the force of his arguments. We separated without coming to an agreement upon this point; and as we were not to see each other again for some time, I committed my thoughts to paper, made a fair copy, and sent it him. He answered, and I replied. Three or four letters had been written by each, when my father chanced to light upon my papers and read them. Without entering into the merits of the cause, he embraced the opportunity of speaking to me upon my manner of writing. He observed, that though I had the advantage of my adversary in correct spelling and pointing, which I owed to my occupation, I was greatly his inferior in elegance of expression, in arrangement, and perspicuity. Of this he convinced me by several examples. I felt the justness of his remarks, became more attentive to language, and resolved to make every effort to improve my style.

* Amidst these resolves an odd volume of the Spectator fell into my hands. This was a publication I had never seen. I bought the volume, and read it again and again. I was enchanted with it, thought the style excellent, and wished it were in my power to imitate it. With this view I selected some of the papers, made short summaries of the sense of each period, and put them for a few days aside. I then, without looking at the book, endeavoured to restore the essays to their true form, and to express each thought at length, as it was in the original, employing the most appropriate words that occurred to my mind. I afterwards

compared my Spectator with the original ; I perceived some faults, which I corrected : but I found that I wanted a fund of words, if I may so express myself, and a facility of recollecting and employing them, which I thought I should by that time have acquired, had I continued to make verses. The continual need of words of the same meaning, but of different lengths for the measure, or of different sounds for the rhyme, would have obliged me to seek for a variety of synonymes, and have rendered me master of them. From this belief, I took some of the tales of the Spectator and turned them into verse ; and after a time, when I had sufficiently forgotten them, I again converted them into prose.'

In 1720 or 1721, his brother began to print a newspaper—Previous to this there was but one in all America, which was thought quite sufficient, and Mr. Franklin was censured for projecting a new one. Diffident of his talents for writing, the first communications to the paper, Benjamin wrote in a disguised hand, and placed under the door of the printing office ; but as soon as discovered, the circumstance raised him in his brother's opinion. The brother was, however, a very passionate and severe master, and our biographer remarks, that his tyrannical treatment served greatly to impress upon his mind that aversion to arbitrary power which he ever afterwards preserved.

He was fortunately released from this disagreeable situation by the newspaper proving inimical to the assembly, who issued an injunction 'that James Franklin should no longer print the New England Courant.'—It was, therefore, determined by their friends that it should be printed in the name of Benjamin Franklin, and to avoid a charge of collusion, his brother gave up his indentures. As the brother, however, still continued his ill-treatment, Benjamin determined to quit him, and went to New York to seek employment at seventeen years of age, but not finding a situation, he proceeded to Philadelphia, where after a variety of adventures he obtained employment under Mr. Keimer, a printer of no great eminence.

A singular accident introduced Franklin to the notice of sir William Keith, the governor, who talked of establishing him in business, but preparatory to that step advised a voyage to London. In this instance the governor cruelly played with the young's man credulity, and even disappointed him of the recommendatory letters which he had promised in England, and under the favour of which Franklin had undertaken the voyage. Almost penniless, and without a friend or patron in London, a singular accident introduced him to Mr. Hamilton, who was then an eminent advocate, and afterwards governor.—He very candidly, however, takes an opportunity of doing justice to the character of sir William Keith.

‘ But what are we to think of a governor who could play so scurvy a trick, and thus grossly deceive a poor young lad, wholly destitute of experience? It was a practice with him. Wishing to please every body, and having little to bestow, he was lavish of promises. He was in other respects sensible and judicious, a very tolerable writer, and a good governor for the people; though not so for the proprietaries, whose instructions he frequently disregarded. Many of our best laws were his work, and established during his administration.’

Franklin obtained employment at a Mr. Palmer's, a noted printer in Bartholomew-close. During his engagement here, he wrote a short metaphysical treatise on liberty and necessity, &c. which raised him in the opinion of his master. He worked at first at press, but engaged afterwards as a compositor with Mr. Watts of Lincoln's Inn Fields. Several projects were proposed to him while in this situation, but he declined them, and accepted a proposal from Mr. Denham, who had been a fellow passenger with him, to return to Philadelphia, and become his clerk, as a merchant.—He sailed from Gravesend the 23d July, 1726, and landed at Philadelphia 11th of October. He was however soon deprived of his agreeable situation under Mr. Denham by the death of that worthy man—By this event he was brought back to his former profession, and engaged as foreman with his old master Keimer. The ill-treatment of this man soon dissolved the connexion, and Franklin entered into a partnership with one Meredith who had worked with Keimer, and whose father was a man of property. At this period the doctor gives a very interesting picture of the moral state of his mind, which contains an excellent antidote against the pernicious principles of modern Deism. About the same time Franklin formed a debating club in Philadelphia, composed of the most intelligent persons of his acquaintance, of which he gives a very pleasing and lively description. Soon after this he engaged in printing a newspaper, which had been set up by Keimer.—By the friendship of Mr. Hamilton and his own merit, he was nominated printer to the assembly. About the year 1729, he bought Meredith out of the partnership, and embarked in the business, on his own account.

A demand being at this time made for a fresh emission of paper currency, and much clamour being excited concerning it, Franklin wrote a pamphlet on the unpopular side, viz. in favour of the emission, which had much effect, and he was rewarded by an order to print the bills.

‘ I now opened (continues the doctor) a small stationer's shop. I kept bonds and agreements of all kinds, drawn up in a more

accurate form than had yet been seen in that part of the world ; a work in which I was assisted by my friend Breintnal. I had also paper, parchment, pasteboard, books, &c. One Whitemash, an excellent compositor, whom I had known in London, came to offer himself. I engaged him ; and he continued constantly and diligently to work with me. I also took an apprentice, the son of Aquila Rose.'

Keimer soon after failed, and Franklin had no competitor but Bradford, who, however, being postmaster, had a better sale for his newspaper. On the 1st of Sept. 1730, he married Miss Read, for whom he had conceived a strong attachment before his voyage to England, but whom he had afterwards neglected. In 1731, he established the Library Society at Philadelphia, which was afterwards incorporated, and which now possesses 8000 volumes. In 1732 he began to publish Poor Richard's Almanac, of which 10,000 have been sold in one year. In 1736 he was appointed clerk to the General Assembly of Pennsylvania, which situation he held till he was elected one of the representatives for Philadelphia. In 1737, he was appointed postmaster ; and some time after suggested the plan of an association for insuring houses from fire. In 1744, he formed a plan for a military association for the defence of the province, and was chosen colonel of the Philadelphia regiment.

The situation of Franklin now enabled him to engage in philosophical pursuits with some attention ; and his observations on electricity he communicated to his friend Mr. Collinson of London, in a series of letters beginning in 1747. In 1750 he made the grand discovery, ascertaining the identity of lightning and the electrical fluid, which he turned afterwards to a practical use by the invention of conductors to preserve buildings from lightning. Of Dr. Franklin's political engagements, Dr. Stuber speaks as follows :

' Although philosophy was a principal object of Franklin's pursuit for several years, he confined himself not to this. In the year 1747, he became a member of the general assembly of Pennsylvania, as a burges for the city of Philadelphia. Warm disputes at this time subsisted between the assembly and the proprietaries ; each contending for what they conceived to be their just rights. Franklin, a friend to the rights of man from his infancy, soon distinguished himself as a steady opponent of the unjust schemes of the proprietaries. He was soon looked up to as the head of the opposition ; and to him have been attributed many of the spirited replies of the assembly, to the messages of the governors. His influence in the body was very great. This arose not from any superior powers of eloquence ; he spoke but seldom, and

and he never was known to make any thing like an elaborate harangue. His speeches often consisted of a single sentence, or of a well-told story, the moral of which was always obviously to the point. He never attempted the flowery fields of oratory. His manner was plain and mild, His style in speaking was, like that of his writings, simple, unadorned, and remarkably concise. With this plain manner, and his penetrating and solid judgment, he was able to confound the most eloquent and subtle of his adversaries, to confirm the opinions of his friends, and to make converts of the unprejudiced who had opposed him. With a single observation, he has rendered of no avail an elegant and lengthy discourse, and determined the fate of a question of importance.'

In 1749, he projected the plan of a public academy in Philadelphia, to which was annexed a charity school. In 1753, Franklin was appointed deputy postmaster-general for the British colonies. In 1755 he was made colonel of a regiment of militia in Philadelphia; but from the jealousy of the English ministry the regiments were soon disbanded, and the defence of the province left to the regular troops. In 1757, he came over to England in the character of agent for the province of Pennsylvania, on some disputes between the proprietary and the assembly. He was soon after elected a F. R. S. and the degree of LL. D. was conferred on him by the Universities of St. Andrews, Edinburgh, and Oxford. A pamphlet published by him with respect to the advantages of the Canada trade, is supposed to have produced the expedition which terminated in the conquest of that province. In 1762, he returned to America, and received the thanks of the assembly, and a compensation of 5000*l.* for his services. In 1764, he was again appointed agent for the colony, and was active in obtaining the repeal of the stamp act. In 1766, he visited the continent of Europe, and was introduced to Louis XV.

When the unhappy disputes took place between Great Britain and the colonies, Dr. Franklin left nothing untried to prevail on the ministry to change their measures; but finding all his efforts in vain, returned to America in 1775, immediately after the commencement of hostilities, and the day after his arrival was elected a delegate for congress. In the fall of the year he visited Canada, to unite them in the American cause. Dr. Franklin was afterwards chosen to treat with lord Howe and the British commissioners.

' The momentous question of independence was shortly after brought into view, at a time when the fleets and armies, which were sent to enforce obedience, were truly formidable. With an army, numerous indeed, but ignorant of discipline, and entirely

unskilled in the art of war, without money, without a fleet, without allies, and with nothing but the love of liberty to support them, the colonists determined to separate from a country, from which they had experienced a repetition of injury and insult. In this question, Dr. Franklin was decidedly in favour of the measure proposed, and had great influence in bringing over others to his sentiments.

‘The public mind had been pretty fully prepared for this event, by Mr. Paine’s celebrated pamphlet, *Common Sense*. There is good reason to believe that Dr. Franklin had no inconsiderable share, at least, in furnishing materials for this work.’

Of the convention at Philadelphia in 1776, for establishing a new form of government, Dr. Franklin was president; in the latter end of the same year he went to France in the character of a negociator, and in 1778 fortunately concluded an alliance offensive and defensive with that kingdom.

The trading part of the British nation, becoming at length convinced of the ruinous tendency of the war, were clamorous for peace about the year 1782, and on the 3d of September 1783, Dr. Franklin, as one of the American plenipotentiaries, signed the treaty. In 1785, Dr. Franklin returned to America; he was shortly after appointed president of the supreme executive council for Philadelphia, and in 1787, was chosen a delegate to the convention for perfecting the constitution.—In the same year he became president of two most laudable societies, one for alleviating the miseries of prisons; the other for the abolition of slavery. In 1788, he retired entirely from public life; and on the 17th of April 1790, died of an imposthume on his lungs, aged 84.

The very imperfect abstract which we have been able to present to our readers, will scarcely suffice even to give them an outline of Dr. Franklin’s character, and for the perfect portrait, we must refer to the volume itself. The part of his life which was written by himself, is, indeed, an invaluable specimen of biography; it is distinguished by the ease, pleasantness, and fascinating manner in which it is composed; and, though it comes to us through so singular a medium as a translation from the French, it does not seem to have lost much by this circumstance, as, were we not informed of the fact, few persons we believe would have suspected it to be a translation.—In the continuation by Dr. Stuber, the events of Dr. Franklin’s public career seem to be accurately recorded, but we want the interesting details of domestic life, and the sentiments of the man himself—How much is it to be regretted that the doctor neglected to complete the work?

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In a future Review we shall present the reader with some specimens of the miscellaneous part of these volumes, which appears in general well selected.

(To be continued.)

A Paper on the Prevention and Treatment of the Disorders of Seamen and Soldiers in Bengal. Presented to the Honourable Court of East-India Directors, in the Year 1791. By J. P. Wade, M. D. 8vo. 3s. Boards. Murray. 1793.

WE passed over Dr. Wade's Evidences cursorily, with an intention of examining his precepts at a greater length. They contain many observations of importance, and it must be our apology, if our article appears too extensive, that we now consider both works together.

The first part relates to the management of seamen. We think our author's ideas respecting contagion calculated to inspire too much confidence. The fevers of seamen are not, in reality, infectious; but, when the miasmata are inhaled, the concurrence of occasional causes may contribute to their action. The plan, therefore, to be adopted, which will combine the health of the seamen with the necessary exertions is, to suggest most strongly the importance of guarding against the exciting causes, and to inculcate very forcibly the danger of these, as the principal circumstances to be dreaded, in such situations. The observations respecting liquor, provisions, cleanliness, exercise, ventilation and intestinal evacuations, are judicious and applicable to the company's service.

The subject of diseases will be the most copious source of our remarks, for many of our author's directions may be advantageously applied to the same complaints, even in Europe; and so intimate is the connection between England and India at this time, that constitutional diseases acquired in Asia, become the subjects of our practice, and yield only to the most approved methods of that country. Fevers, the first complaint particularly noticed, are among the least peculiar diseases of India. They originate, therefore, almost constantly from the bowels and their contents: here, in the few instances where they do not arise from this cause, they are greatly exasperated by fordes collected in the intestinal tube. The principal remedy there is purging; and here, if any remedy is peculiarly adapted to the disease, it is the same. Our author, we suspect, under-rates the abilities and sagacity of the European practitioners, in the following passage; for, in no instance will a physician of experience confine the evacuations in the manner

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mentioned, even in inflammatory, much less in fevers of the bilious kind.

• When cases, therefore, occur in those regions, which exhibit the appearances of an inflammatory, or of a low nervous fever, should the physician, according to the best knowledge he may have acquired from lectures or from books, pronounce them distinct disorders, and opposite in their nature or treatment, the patient would, in general, have a very unfair chance for his life. But the error is more fatal in the latter, in which sudorifics, strengthening medicines, and cordials, are generally prescribed. In the former, indeed, intestinal evacuations are allowed, in a limited manner, by practitioners in Europe.

• An opinion generally prevails, that the diseases of warmer latitudes differ very materially from such as afflict the inhabitants of cold climates, and that the methods of treating them should consequently vary; under this impression, the best practitioners in India have ventured to deviate in some measure from the practice of Europe, or have rather exercised the means sometimes recommended by authors to a greater degree.

• Few medical gentlemen, unless on their immediate arrival in the East Indies, confine intestinal evacuations, at the commencement of many disorders, particularly of fevers, within the limits of European practice; but fewer still possess experience and courage to exert those means with the energy which is absolutely necessary for the preservation of a patient on many occasions.

• Authors have recommended more considerable evacuations in fevers purely bilious, than in those of a putrid, nervous, or inflammatory character. A gentle vomit, and a laxative, perhaps one repetition of these with occasional glysters, constitute the whole of the evacuations from the stomach and intestines; but in cases supposed to be of the true bilious kind, these evacuations, though procured by the gentlest means, are recommended to be repeated oftener, and prolonged, perhaps, until an intermission or a remission take place, when the bark is exhibited without loss of time, or a scruple respecting the quantity, to obviate a return of the symptoms, but in reality a recovery from the disease. When the nature of the disorder is very obvious in bilious fevers, most individuals of the faculty will not hesitate to promote those evacuations to a degree beyond European practice; and the means are only defective in celerity and vigour; still, however, with a prejudice in favour of the bark in the first, or amongst the most intrepid and intelligent in the subsequent remissions or intermissions of the fever. But when the bilious fever is disguised under doubtful appearances, or, to speak more properly, when the foul contents of the stomach and intestines excite appearances which personate the inflammatory, the putrid, or the nervous fever, and their

their several modifications, the evacuations are generally restricted to a vomit and a laxative medicine, perhaps a single repetition of the latter with occasional glysters, succeeded by diaphoretics, vigorous antiseptics, corroborants, cordials, stimulants, opiates, and death.'

This, we have said, is not a fair account of any practice; but that of a few empirics, who sometime since supposed the bark was to cure every fever. In general, we hope very generally, the evacuations are continued through the course of the disease, in a degree proportioned to the violence of the fever, and the nature of the evacuations. Almost every practitioner of eminence knows that bark will not cure intermittents, when combined with extreme fullness of the biliary system, previous to evacuations. Yet it must be acknowledged, that the practice of giving purgatives is not generally known or followed among apothecaries, and some physicians of a particular sect. Wine and cordials supply their place, and congestions of the head or biliary system, which might be relieved by a few saline purgatives, are impacted by the force of stimulants, till the excitability is destroyed, and the patient sinks, *it is supposed*, from the fever.

When Dr. Wade speaks particularly of remedies, he seems to entertain some unreasonable prejudices against blisters. They relieve topical pain and congestions in the head, nor are they hurtful but to persons of extreme irritability, who are affected by the pain, or sunk by the sudden depletion. In Bengal, it may be different. Bark, he seems to disapprove; and, in this climate, the evacuation of the putrid fomes from the intestines, by purgatives, has precluded its use. In hot climates, we have good authority for saying that it is sometimes necessary in the earlier stages, and it appears probable that farther observation may fix the limits, within which it may be safely employed. At present, we cannot in our circumstances ascertain them; but that bark may strengthen the bowels, and correct the torpidity which prevents the action of purgatives, we can believe. In a torpid state, the bark seems still farther to lessen sensibility. Opiates our author thinks highly injurious; but we must, with him, limit this remark to the fevers of Bengal. We write '*from*,' not '*for*' practice, and know their utility. Wine, in the same circumstances, Dr. Wade thinks unnecessary, and unless in fevers *truly* putrid, it probably is so. But in all these points he differs from authors of credit, and makes some apology for it, though not a very gracious or complaisant one.

Of the evacuating remedies, venæsection is the most dangerous; and it is observed either more immediately or more
remotely

remotely to occasion delirium, probably the delirium from too great depletion. On sweating, our author's comprehensive system may be selected.

' To avoid prolixity at present, a chain of assertions may be offered, of which the connection and validity shall appear in a future publication. He may therefore affirm, that the foul contents of the stomach or intestines are capable of exciting the cuticular secretions morbidly; that in the instances of spontaneous sweats described by authors, which have not proved beneficial, these have probably been the exciting causes, and, in conjunction with mal-practice, have had a share in all forced sweats; that from the entire expulsion of these from the body, or their removal from the neighbourhood of the stomach, all sweats of a favourable termination, and such as have been esteemed critical, have flowed; that sweats afford not any conjecture respecting the event, which may not previously be formed from an observation of the progress, or the actual predicament of the exciting causes in the bowels; that, in the increase and diminution of the oppression about the præcordia, and other symptoms, which appear to accompany sweating, authors have uniformly mistaken the cause for the effect, and the effect for the cause; that the most powerful means to promote perspiration consist in the removal of the cause of the fever, by evacuating the foul contents of the stomach or intestines, principally by purging; that as an effect may continue to operate for some time after the removal of its cause, or a diseased action may become habitual, perspiration will not always succeed immediately to the expulsion of the offending matters, nor the fever cease; that in a protraction of this nature, medicines which do not evacuate the bowels, may be possibly adapted to the counteraction of those effects, and the restoration of natural habits to the skin; that all diaphoretics, not direct evacuants, whenever they have proved serviceable, have operated in this way; that on these principles, attempts to excite perspiration in any other way, during any period of fever, than such as promotes evacuation from the stomach and intestines, are always to be avoided, and a spontaneous tendency that way to be checked by cool air and other means, until evacuations have taken place; and that, consequently, almost the whole tribe of sudorifics should be exploded from practice in Bengal.'

Vomiting is a remedy which Dr. Wade admits with some caution, and seemingly with unwillingness. It is to prepare for the almost exclusive merit of his favourite plan, purging—a plan, we know, to be more generally useful, more indispensable than any other. But the name of its original author should not be concealed: it was Stahl the rival of Hoffman. Dr. Wade's particular remarks on purgatives we shall transcribe.

' Very

* Very few of the other orders (except the saline and oily) of purgatives deserve any attention in these disorders, or perhaps in any others in that country. The symptoms sometimes yield altogether, or abate considerably, after the operation of these medicines; in all cases they should certainly be allowed precedence. But as the disease does not always arise from the quantity or quality of grosser matters in the stomach and intestines, or from any proportion of vitiated bile and other secretions, which the utmost power of these purgatives can effect, we must have recourse to such as are more active and better calculated to remove the cause of the complaint, which may frequently be supposed to arise from the quantity, deficiency, vitiation, or immobility of certain secretions of the stomach and intestines, particularly the mucus adhering to the latter. That the cause of the protraction of fevers is often connected with the state of the mucus, as well as of the other secretions, appears from the immediate cessation or alleviation of all the symptoms on a copious discharge; and that the mucus is often vitiated in a most extraordinary manner, the senses of the observer will afford ample testimony. There are practitioners, to whom these cannot prove a source of information. The extreme delicacy of some gentlemen will not permit them to carry their researches so far; yet it is from this source, and this alone, that any precise knowledge respecting the nature, probable duration, and other circumstances of the disorder, but particularly the necessity of further evacuations, can possibly be acquired. It may be deemed particularly fortunate, that the purgatives which prove most successful in fevers are as mild in their operation as they are certain and powerful; that they are not subject to the inconveniences attending the other classes, for from their want of bulk they are more retainable in the stomach; and that from their specific gravity they may be supposed to reach more readily the sources of the evil, and to combat these with more success. Mercurial purgatives, particularly calomel, possess these advantages in the trifling quantity of two or three grains; but such small doses are seldom of much efficacy after the first and second, and a repetition would be esteemed rash by the generality of practitioners. They have frequently, however, in the smallest proportion, an operation so extensive, as to remove the complaint altogether, in slighter cases, by copious evacuations. But other occasions require their exhibition in such quantities, and after intervals so short, as would terrify most of the faculty, even in India, and appear to practitioners in Europe necessarily fatal. The most trifling detriment, however, has not been observed in any one instance, though a discharge from the salivary glands has not unfrequently ensued. It is always, however, proper, as well to obviate these inconveniences, as to render their evacuating powers more certain, to urge their operation by other cathartics, especially in a liquid form.

form. It may be received as a general rule, that the calomel, either alone or in conjunction with cathartic extract, resin, or extract of jalap, scammony, gamboge, elaterium, or the mass of laxative mercurial pills, should be exhibited at night, and the medicines necessary to promote its effects early the ensuing morning, as well as during the course of that day, according to circumstances. From two to ten or more grains of calomel, with a greater proportion of any of the other articles, may form a dose with the utmost safety; for these medicines, as evacuants, do not act with a disturbance, nor perhaps with an efficacy, in the exact proportion of their quantities. These doses may and should be repeated every second night, or, according to the pressure of the symptoms, every night, as long as any thing offensive shall remain to be discharged from the bowels, in the form of grosser excrement, vitiated bile, mucus, &c. Forty or more grains of calomel, with a larger quantity of the laxative mercurial pill, have been exhibited with innocency, and with greater benefit, in this manner, during the course of five or six days. Laxatives alone, or with additional efficacy from an union with antimonials, should be administered, not only in the mornings after the calomel, but in smaller quantities during the whole of the intervals; a very dilute solution of tartar emetic alone generally answers this purpose extremely well.

The fevers which sometimes follow the more violent ones, are styled chronic. They, almost in every instance, arise from obstructed liver, and yield, we are told, to mercurials, with purgatives interposed. Dr. Wade seems to think, that the changes of the moon influence fever, and adds some judicious remarks on diet.

Dysentery does not detain him so long. He considers it, in Sydenham's language, as a fever of the intestines, and treats it like fever, with calomel and other purges. Venæsection is supposed generally dangerous, sudorifics detrimental; bark and opium useless or inapplicable.

The medical language of India is singular, and it was not a little strange to hear 'the liver' and 'the bile' spoken of familiarly as diseases. But a long continuance of heat will of itself induce hepatic complaints, and every fever borrow its form and time from the same source, so that it is not surprising to find this very comprehensive term so generally used, though not with strict accuracy. Even nervous and pulmonary symptoms arise from an affection of this very important organ, which furnishes the next subject of Dr. Wade's remarks.

It is not easy to abridge the history of symptoms; but the apparent hectic, which so often attends 'the liver' and depends
on

on it, may mislead an inattentive practitioner; may for a time impose on an able one: numerous supposed consumptions, in the decline of life, even in milder climates, have been only the peculiar form of this disease.

• Perhaps there is no variety of derangement in the functions of the lungs, but what may, and does occasionally, originate from the liver; but this is not the proper place to take notice of acute cases. All denominations of asthma, dry, humid, nervous, have often proved symptomatic of the liver, both in the strict and extended application of the term. Every alteration of the offices of the lungs, from the natural state of respiration, from a slight sense of impediment to a condition not far removed from suffocation, increased, sudden, quick, difficult, laborious respiration, are all generally characteristic of the liver. To these are added a greater difficulty of breathing after any effort; a sense of suffocation occasionally; a perception of heavy weight pressing on the lower parts of the lungs; a cough in all its varieties, generally dry, for a length of time at least, frequently constant, often recurring only at intervals, sometimes very slight, sometimes the principal and only symptom, when moist accompanied by excretions of every colour and consistence; pain in one or both sides, or in other parts of the chest, sometimes permanent and apparently pleuritic, at other times intermittent or periodical, often of a peripneumonic character; difficulty of lying on one or both sides, and sometimes of a recumbent posture altogether, though not often in chronic cases, chiefly, however, in the last stages; a sense of stricture about the pharynx, or of weakness there; sometimes a slight degree of difficulty in swallowing; a degree of hoarseness, and various changes in the voice; a palpitation of the heart is by no means uncommon. When any number of the preceding symptoms prove obstinate, it will always be prudent to have the liver in view.'

A fever resembling the yellow fever of the West Indies was epidemic in 1789, and supposed after some failures to originate from the liver, or to be connected with it. On dissection, that gland was found considerably enlarged, and patients treated, in the usual way, with mercurial friction, together with constant purgatives, and occasional emetics, which did not 'induce that excessive irritability of the stomach attributed to them by practitioners in the West Indies,' were afterwards generally recovered. Every disease, originating from the liver, is cured by mercury and laxatives; so that, in obstinate cases, which have the remotest connection with this organ, practitioners are advised to try this remedy. The spleen is sometimes affected at the same time, and sometimes found uninjured.

The treatment of the disease consists, we have said, in the exhibition of mercury with constant purgatives, and occasionally interposing emetics. If mercury passes off by the intestines, it does not retard the cure; but, of this circumstance, our author leaves us in some doubt. It appears necessary that the mercury should be collected in the system, but this will certainly be retarded by its laxative effect. From Dr. Wade, we should with difficulty find a clue, but in an excellent pamphlet, published some years since by Dr. Girdlestone, the practice was detailed with much greater precision. Our author thinks mercury should be tried, even when an abscess is apparently formed, because the symptoms of abscess are uncertain, and it may probably happen, that, though one part of the viscus be suppurated, another part may be only indurated. Purgatives or antimonials may, it is remarked, be combined with mercury, but by no means opium.

The letter from Dr. Paisly, surgeon general at Madras, which concludes this volume, is truly excellent. It is dictated by sound judgment—careful and enlightened observation. He speaks of opiates and astringents in fluxes with dread; thinks that the suspending of the evacuations, even for one night, may induce fatal mortification; and even light bitters, in apparent dyspeptic cases, have brought on, he says, obstructions and an inflammation of the liver; castor oil, he appears to think useful, when the excreted fluids are not viscid, but prefers, in general, rhubarb and calomel. The liver-cough strikes us as an object of such importance, that we are induced to corroborate Dr. Wade's observations with Dr. Paisley's authority.

‘ Before I conclude this letter, though somewhat foreign to the subject of yours, I cannot avoid putting you on your guard against a disorder of the liver, which, from its being overlooked, I have once seen in Europe, and several times here, attended with fatal consequences. The disorder I mean, is what may be termed a liver cough. The obstruction, in this case, is pretty generally attended with inflammation and pain, though seldom acute, unless pressed with the fingers, or when the external membrane is also affected; but it oftener happens without pain or inflammation. The cough, though only a symptomatic complaint, is the *misleading symptom* of the disease. The patient pronounces his own case a cold, and is put on a course of ineffectual pectorals, takes exercise, and shifts his situation for health, until his liver either suppurates, or becomes an indolent mass of irrecoverable obstructions. In very irritable inflammatory habits, any mistake at the commencement of the disease is of the most dangerous consequence. The liver, the diaphragm, and the lungs, adhere and suppurate, and

and a purulent spitting succeeds ; though, instead of a smooth uniform pus, the substance of the liver is expectorated by a deep hollow cough, in form of glandular membranous appearances, mixed with purplish discoloured blood, of a parenchymatous look.

* This disorder, like all other inflammatory disorders of the liver, is very tractable in the beginning, by evacuations, relaxing antiphlogistic medicines, and mercury. Such cases as the above I have met with, and have been happy enough to effect some cures, even in that advanced stage.

* It is to be observed, that in all confirmed diseases of the lungs of any standing, the liver is always affected ; but in this disorder the lungs are only the secondary object, and never give any trouble, if the obstruction of the liver be removed, as in them there are neither tubercles nor infarctions. The breathing, except in inflammatory cases, is never affected ; and the symptomatic complaints, cough and pain in the shoulder, may always be mitigated by lying on the back, with the head low and the legs raised.

Agues it may be supposed are sometimes hepatic diseases, and in these Dr. Paisly employs the more active emetics, recommending antimonial and ipecacuanha wines, of each half an ounce with six drachms of the oxymel of squills. The observations, respecting the use of bark in agues, are simple and judicious. If the relaxing methods fail, Dr. Paisly advises the trial of bark ; and, if this method should be found useless, deobstruents and neutral relaxants should be employed. We perceive, from the case which he records, that he does not carry the evacuating system far at once : when he found himself master of the disorder, he employed the laxatives gently, but steadily.

On the whole, we highly recommend this very useful practical work, and think, in general, medicine greatly improved by the practitioners of warm climates. Dr. Wade, probably like all other physicians, has his predilections for, and aversions to, particular remedies ; but the bias will soon be seen and not greatly mislead. He has suggested many valuable remarks, which we hope will not be passed over with inattention.

Philosophical and Literary Essays. By Dr. Gregory, of Edinburgh. 2 Vols. 8vo. 12s. Boards. Cadell. 1792.

WHEN we consider the great importance of a just and accurate knowledge of the operations of the human mind, and recollect that Dr. Hartley, who was a physician, contributed much to the elucidation of this interesting subject, we

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cannot be disposed to blame Dr. Gregory for deserting his post, and leaving the bedside, to engage in the wide field of metaphysical disquisition. Concerning liberty and necessity much has been written, and each doctrine has been strenuously supported by its different advocates; yet the main question still remains involved in much doubt and obscurity. Dr. Gregory therefore steps forward on the side of liberty, and endeavours to clear away those doubts and difficulties by the application of mathematical demonstration to this department of science. We find the treatise contained in the volumes before us, to be only a part of a more extensive undertaking. 'An Essay towards an Investigation of the exact Import and Extent of the common Notion of the Relation of Cause and Effect in Physics, and of the real Nature of that Relation.'— This Dr. Gregory conceives to be a very important and even rational enquiry; and we think so too, provided that the Dr. can point out a plain and satisfactory method by which it may be prosecuted. In this publication, however, the author proceeds no further than is sufficient to show that the relation of cause and effect in physics is materially different from that of motive and action in metaphysics, and consequently, that the reasoning which proceeds from the supposition of the relation being the same as in the common arguments of the necessarians, is without any just foundation. In this place, however, we must not enter into the merits of the question respecting necessity, but go on to the examination of Dr. Gregory's very extensive and elaborate Introduction. — The author's distinction between events and effects seems to have been made with clearness and accuracy. Respecting the generally admitted philosophical principle, that 'for every effect there must be a cause, &c.' Dr. Gregory observes, that though it may have *something* in it as unquestionably true as any axiom of geometry, yet that when taken altogether it is not quite so clear and precise as it ought to be, or as the axioms of geometry actually are. That, therefore, however necessary it may be to admit the physical axiom of the universality, and the necessity of a cause for every event, or supposed effect, it must be equally and previously necessary to have it made perfectly clear and precise. This he supposes can only be done by a particular explanation and full illustration of the notion expressed by the term *cause*; and of the relation supposed to subsist between *cause* and *effect*. The full consideration of this subject is, however, purposely avoided in this part of the work, in order to afford a more ample scope for the author's enquiry concerning the exact import and extent of the common and natural notion of the relation of cause and effect, respecting which, he conceives various fanciful and erroneous opinions

opinions have prevailed, and of which many arbitrary, confused, and false definitions have been given. To ascertain the exact import and extent of this common notion, Dr. Gregory very justly considers as a point of great importance, because the precise meaning of it being once duly determined and understood, he thinks, it may be possible, which otherwise it would not, to find out whether it be just and rational, or erroneous and groundless, or in what respects it is just, and in what erroneous. Nay, in fine, to discover how far it coincides, or is inconsistent with what is already known of the established laws and order of nature. The author's reasons for making the enquiry are the following:

‘ If we find, on careful examination, that there is among things and events a relation corresponding to our common notion of cause and effect, this notion, I think, may with sufficient propriety be pronounced just and rational. But if there be in fact no such relation among things and events, or if we can find no proof of there being such an one among them, then I think our notion of the relation in question must be pronounced either wholly or partly erroneous and groundless. If we find that there are among things and events several different relations, all of which have occasionally been expressed by the terms *cause* and *effect*; that there are not only very different kinds of *events* or *effects*, (which indeed is self-evident), but also different kinds of *causes* or *principles of change*; and that between each of these and its corresponding event there is something peculiar or specific in the relation, besides what is general or common in all such relations; then I think it must be an important object in philosophy to attend to all these different *relations of event*, to investigate as far as possible the nature of every kind of cause, to ascertain the peculiar province of each, and to refer every kind of event or effect to its own proper cause or principle of change. And if we find that many events proceed from a concurrence or co-operation of two or more different kinds of causes, it must be the business of philosophy to ascertain such concurrence, and to discover what share each kind of cause has in the production of those phenomena which we observe and refer to them.

‘ Many philosophers have overlooked, what appears to me obvious to our unassisted faculties, and generally acknowledged by mankind, and what I find on the most careful examination to be true, that there are many different relations, as well as different kinds of event, many different kinds of causes, and often the concurrence of several kinds of causes in the production of one event. And such philosophers, in consequence of their inattention to some of these obvious truths, and an ill-judged and ill-placed love of simplicity, and an eager desire, to which we are by nature prone,

of referring things to as few principles as possible, have sometimes fallen into confusion and error, even of the most extravagant kind, in their speculations; by endeavouring to refer every kind of event or effect which they observed to one kind of cause. The kind of cause which has been thus favoured in preference to all others, and regarded as the only principle of change, has been different with different philosophers, according to their several tastes or fancies, and very much according to the kinds of event and cause which had chiefly engaged their attention. The inevitable consequence of this conduct has been, to perplex this essential part of philosophy, and to retard the progress both of physical and metaphysical science. And it is chiefly by following the very opposite conduct, that I think we may hope to acquire real and useful knowledge of the subject in question; by attending to those differences, which have been so generally disregarded among the several kinds of events, and of causes, and of relations of event and cause, and to the frequent co-operation of different kinds of causes; with a fixed distrust of all the philosophical notions and doctrines that have ever been inculcated on the subject; but with due regard to the natural suggestions of the human faculties, and a sacred reverence to those fundamental laws of human thought, according to which even our observations must be made, as well as our inferences drawn, and our ultimate opinions formed.

The means which Dr. Gregory advises to be employed in this investigation, are therefore the same that Bacon long ago recommended for the improvement of natural philosophy.—In the further illustration of this part of his subject, Dr. Gregory casts a contemptuous glance at the philosophical theory of *ideas*; a doctrine which *he* considers as one of the most splendid monuments that ever existed, of the abuse and perversion of human reason. We apprehend, however, that the supposition of ideas, being the immediate or only objects of thought in the different operations of the mind, will by many not be allowed to be a monument of perverted reason. Nor will they probably be persuaded that the doctrine has been overturned by Dr. Reid, as supposed by the author. We perfectly agree with Dr. Gregory in opinion, that the assumption of, and partial attachment to hypothetical principles, and the consequent neglect of accurate observation and experiment, and of strict inductive reasoning, are highly improper both in physical and metaphysical inquiries, and that they have probably been more prejudicial in the latter. Few discoveries, the author thinks, have been made by means of hypothesis, while many curious and useful ones have been effected by other means.—This leads him to a more important disquisition, and to make a *discovery* which seems alone to have been reserved for *him*; that in metaphysical

metaphysical science no *discoveries* can possibly be made. The arguments which Dr. Gregory uses in support of this singular opinion, rest upon the very slender foundation, that the whole science may be recognised in our own thoughts, and that there is no part but what is within us, requiring only attention to elicit it. On this subject a very few observations will be sufficient to shew the untenable ground on which Dr. Gregory builds his assertion. By discovery, it is certainly never meant that something must be found out which never yet existed. In physics, it is to find a relation not generally known; as the identity of the principle by which an apple falls to the ground, and that which retains the heavenly bodies in their proper orbits. In geography it is to find a country, which though it existed, was not known before; in metaphysics, to perceive a relation between different operations of the mind, or the principle which pervades and influences them. Thus Dr. Hartley, and even before him Thomas Hobbes, saw the extensive influence of the association of ideas, and explained many of the operations of the human mind on this principle. It cannot, however, be denied that ideas were associated before, and that this means of connection might before have been recognised in our own thoughts. The circulation of the blood existed within us, and might have been recognised by the most easy trials, yet no one now contends that this was not a discovery. The American islands existed, and it was only necessary to sail westward to find them out; yet Columbus has been called a discoverer. Was not the 47th proposition of the first book of Euclid a discovery? Yet it is certain that the square of the hypotenuse was equal to the square of both sides, and might have been recognised by our own thoughts, *if properly directed*; for in these few words lies the whole mystery, since in every instance of discovery nothing is produced. Truth is only elicited from the confusion in which circumstances involve it, and the clue which leads to it is found: this is probably as much the case in metaphysics as in any other science.

Notwithstanding Dr. Gregory treats the idea of making discoveries in metaphysics with such marked ridicule and contempt, he seems not to depreciate the philosophy of the human mind, nor represent it as either inscrutable or placed beyond the reach of our faculties. On the contrary he allows, indeed he was obliged to allow, that it is both an interesting and useful branch of science. He also further admits that considerable progress has been made in the cultivation of different parts of it, and that a still greater progress will be made when it shall be cultivated in a proper manner, and with just notions of the objects and limits of it. After this we find Dr. Gregory comparing the science of mind to a plain mirror, only re-

quiring to be looked upon in order to be examined. Our readers will, however, we apprehend, hardly agree that the mind is that easy study that Dr. Gregory represents it to be. If they have been accustom'd to metaphysical research they will be well aware how easily it eludes investigation. The very name of this science, the author remarks, has been held in reproach; he therefore defines metaphysics,

‘ To denote those parts of science whereof the subject is the human mind, and its various operations, or, in other words, all modifications of thought, in contradistinction to physics, whereof the subject is body, and the various changes that occur in it. A rational history of the various operations of thought, a natural and good arrangement of them, an accurate examination and comparison of them, so as to ascertain their various relations, and wherein they agree and wherein they differ, are surely things attainable, and perfectly within the reach of our faculties. The result of such an investigation will be, if not the discovery, at least the more distinct and more perfect knowledge, and the firm establishment, of certain general principles; and ultimately a system of science will be formed, bearing that relation to the particular phenomena of mind, which physical science bears to the phenomena of body.’

Two other causes, besides the propensity to make discoveries, Dr. Gregory finds to have impeded the progress of metaphysical enquiry. These are the improper use of appeals to consciousness, and the employing of ambiguous words and phrases. It must be admitted that appeals to consciousness in almost every instance have been fallacious.

‘ Metaphysical inquiries relate to human thought; and the very object of many of them is, to ascertain the most general, or, if possible, the ultimate facts, or indefeasible laws of it. The most obvious and natural way, if not the only way, for men to know accurately their own thoughts on any subject, seems to be by direct and very strict attention to them. We do not immediately perceive any other way by which men can know their own thoughts, either with respect to particular notions and opinions, or to more general laws: nor do we see any means of supplying defects, or of correcting errors, or even of detecting falsehood, in the accounts which men give of their own thoughts. Yet it must be evident that such defects and errors may often occur, either from the imperfections of the faculties, or want of due attention, or strong attachment to some peculiar system or opinion, in those who undertake to attend to their own thoughts, and to give an account of them. Admitting even, what I really believe to be the case, that all ordinary men are by nature capable of attending directly

to their own thoughts, and consequently of knowing them distinctly, and giving a clear account of them; still there is reason to think that this faculty, like every other that men enjoy, may be greatly improved by proper exercise, and much impaired by want of use; so that in the latter case the exercise of it shall not become not only imperfect, and of course almost unavailing, but difficult and unpleasant to the person himself. The common duties, and business, and pleasures of life, not requiring any great or frequent exercise of that kind of attention, or reflection, as it is called, it will not probably, in the bulk of mankind, be found in greater perfection than just what is requisite for their ordinary occupations and amusements, and above all for their intercourse with one another.'

On this principle Dr. Gregory supposes that it may fairly be presumed, that those who have made the philosophy of human thought their particular study, should be superior to the rest of mankind, both in the knowledge of it, and in the faculty of reflection by which that knowledge is acquired; and that they should constantly agree in the accounts they give of it. This he thinks would have been the case, had not some circumstances in their situation, probably, in the exercise of reflection, and in the nature of appeals to consciousness, tended to confound their reasonings and frustrate their labours. The chief circumstance which has operated in this way, is that attachment which metaphysicians have shown for some preconceived opinion, system, or hypothesis. Another instance of the abuse of appeals to consciousness, in Dr. Gregory's opinion, may be met with in the doctrine of necessity, 'consisting in the persuasion that the influence of motives in producing the (supposed) voluntary actions of mankind, is either precisely the same with that of physical causes in producing their several effects in lifeless bodies, or at least so nearly the same, (allowing for the greater number and different nature of the steps interposed between the motive applied and the ultimate overt action performed in consequence of it) as to be absolute and irresistible in the one case as well as in the other; and completely to exclude the supposed exertion, and possession, nay even the possibility, of any liberty or self-governing power in living persons as well as in lifeless bodies.'—Respecting this doctrine, Dr. Gregory thinks he has ascertained that the ready admission and assertion of the necessary consequences of it, which appear most repugnant to the general opinion, or common sense of mankind, are uniformly limited to those cases alone, in which the appeal as to their truth as matters of fact, is to be made to consciousness. To the bulk of mankind Dr. Gregory supposes it will appear perfectly absurd that there can

be moral merit or demerit, without admitting a self-governing power in the person acting, the latter notion being as much involved in the former as those of time and space are in motion. With regard to the abettors of necessity, Dr. Gregory says,

‘ My firm persuasion on this point is, that those who have maintained the doctrine of necessity have acted uncandidly, as well as unreasonably.

‘ Let it not be supposed, that, in hazarding this assertion, I fall into the disgraceful error, of calling in question the sincerity of any individual, or any set of men, for holding opinions different from mine, and different from those of mankind in general. No person can feel more strongly than I do, how illiberal, as well as unreasonable, such conduct would be. I know well that there are many defects, and often great peculiarities, and sometimes wonderful disorders, in the faculties of different individuals; which will sufficiently account for their maintaining very extravagant opinions, without affording the smallest ground to impeach their veracity.’

The author's observations on the other source of error, the ambiguous use of words and phrases, are extended to a considerable length; in which, however, he has brought into view many very interesting as well as very entertaining particulars. As a very striking instance of inaccurate and imperfect thinking, we shall select, with our author, the common verbal blunder called a *bull*.

‘ The *bull*, in whatever nation or language it may occur, I consider as the extreme case, or *ne plus ultra*, of inaccurate and imperfect thinking; on which very account it affords the best illustration of the nature and causes of such inaccuracies and imperfections of thought, and of the means of correcting them.

‘ If the train of thought were made so slow in any person, that there should be time to attend to every object, and every circumstance of relation involved in any common and complex operation of thought, (for most common operations of thought are complex); and if, by any expedient whatever, the person were made to attend duly to every one of them, either in simultaneous combination, or in very quick succession, according to the circumstances of different cases, I think it would be as impossible for him to make a *bull*, as to deny an axiom of geometry, or the conclusion of a good syllogism.

‘ We hear and read of many wonderful *bulls* of the truly practical kind, altogether independent of language, and plainly founded in thought alone; such as, sending express for a physician to come without delay to a patient who was in the utmost danger, and
telling

telling the doctor, in a postscript of the letter addressed and actually sent to him, not to come, as the patient was already almost well again; or observing gravely, when this story was told, that it was right to add such a postscript, as it saved the sending another express to countermand the doctor; or inclosing a thin sixpence in a snuff-box, that it might not be again to seek when it was wanted to open the box, the lid of which was stiff; or realising Hogarth's ingenious emblem, in one of his election-prints, by cutting away close to the tree the bough on which the person who cut it sat himself; which I once saw successfully performed; and, for the honour of my own country, I must say that it was in Scotland, and by a Scotchman, who narrowly escaped breaking his neck by so doing; or what may fairly be reckoned the *maximum* of *bulls*, and *instar omnium*, a gentleman, when his old nurse came begging to him, harshly refusing her any relief, and driving her away from his door with reproaches, as having been his greatest enemy, telling her that he was assured he had been a fine healthy child till she got him to nurse, when she had changed him for a puny sickly child of her own. If I am rightly informed, France has the honour of having produced this immense and unparalleled *bull*; which is indeed *perfectum expletumque omnibus suis numeris et partibus*, and perfect of its kind.'

Having stated very particularly these sources of error, Dr. Gregory has recourse to other causes of confusion on this subject, but which he seems to consider as of less importance, and to have had a less pernicious effect on the reasonings of metaphysical enquirers. After giving some explanation of the progress of his own knowledge on the subject, Dr. Gregory makes the following observation; that before we can have any chance of success in the pursuit of this enquiry, it will be essentially necessary to obviate in some way or other the inconveniences arising from the too great quickness of thought, which prevents the due consideration of all the circumstances;—the too great disposition to attend to resemblances, and overlook differences;—the various points of resemblance and analogy among the things to be examined;—and the illusion resulting from the ambiguity of the terms commonly used to express them. This, in the author's opinion, can only be done by a constant reference to particular instances. The remaining part of our author's preliminary discourse, after just noticing the different notions which Dr. Reid and Mr. Hume have had of the nature of cause, is filled up by the controversy with Dr. Priestley, whom the author seems to have wished to force into the *arena*. Having thus attended Dr. Gregory through his very diffuse and laboured Introduction, we shall take our leave

of him for the present; but with an intention of soon returning to the examination of the demonstration contained in his Essays.

(*To be continued.*)

Ver-Vert; or, the Parrot of Nevers: a Poem, in Four Cantos. Freely translated from the French of J. B. Gresset. 4to. 2s. 6d. Johnson. 1793.

TO translate is not always to transfuse. The poem of *Ver-Vert*, as the translator truly tells us, has long been admired amongst the most elegant of the mock heroics. It has not the dignity and strong satire of the *Lutrin*, nor the rich invention of the *Rape of the Lock*; but is distinguished by its lightness, gaiety, and ease. These graces are very difficult to render into another language; we do not, therefore, mean to call this version a bad one, when we confess, that though the features are faithfully rendered, we miss in it the charm which engaged us in reading Gresset. — The translator, indeed, lies under a peculiar disadvantage from the subject. The various terms relative to the convent, do not naturalize well in English, nor are we sufficiently familiar with the manner of life there. When we think of nuns, it is in the high heroic strain. We are accustomed to see,

‘ In her cell sad Eloisa spread,

but we know nothing of the coquetry of the *parloir*. The story of the Poem is briefly this. *Ver-Vert* was a parrot belonging to the nuns of the visitation at Nevers, and a great favourite with the whole sisterhood. The young novices treated him with sugar plumbs and bon bons; the mothers taught him Ave Marias and Pater Nosters, from which he profited so well that his fame spread to a sisterhood at Nantes, the nuns of which sent an earnest request that this edifying bird might be permitted to pay them a visit. He is accordingly sent to them by the Loire; but during the voyage, having for his fellow passengers two or three dragoons and other company of that stamp, he unfortunately forgets all the pious aspirations of the convent, and learns the reprobate language of his new companions, in which, to their infinite surprize and disappointment, he accosts the nuns of Nantes, who are struck with horror at his graceless conversation, so different from what they were taught to expect, and send him back in disgrace to Nevers, where the change in his manners excites equal astonishment. Poor *Ver-Vert* is condemned to a penitentiary cell and bread and water, till his fault is supposed to be

be expiated; but on the day appointed for his restoration to favour, the joy and affection of the younger nuns leads them to feast him so profusely with sweetmeats and other good things, that he is literally killed with kindness.

Such is the outline of the tale, to which Gresset has given infinite spirit, by having thrown so much of character into the portrait of his hero, who appears, in the first part, a novice, innocent and demure; and after his transformation, a lively rake and petit maitre.

The translator has not been always sufficiently attentive to this beauty; for instance, where Gresset says, the nuns loved nothing so well except their confessor, nay

‘ dans plus d’un cœur,
Souvent l’Oiseau l’emporta sur le pere.’

The translator renders it,

‘ Nay some soft sisters in the bloom of youth,
Prefer’d the *fowl*’—

where the term fowl is peculiarly unhappy, presenting the idea of a dish upon the table, rather than the object of a tender affection.

He has likewise made the naughty words which the unfortunate Ver-Vert learnt on board the vessel somewhat broader and coarser, which takes off from the elegance of the poem; nor is the verse finished with the care which it ought to have been in a piece, of which delicate raillery, playfulness, and grace, form the merit as much as humour.

Upon the whole, however, Ver-Vert, in its present dress, must be considered as an acceptable present to the English reader. He will see in it a pleasant tale, but he must not think that he has seen Gresset. To those who are acquainted with both languages, we shall give the pleasure of comparing the following passages;

‘ Admis par tout, si l’on en croit l’histoire,
L’Amant chéri mangeoit au réfectoire :
Là, tout s’offroit à ses friands desirs ;
Outre qu’encor, pour ses menus plaisirs,
Pour occuper son ventre infatigable,
Pendant le tems qu’il passoit hors de table,
Mille bonbons, mille exquises douceurs
Chargeoient toujours les poches de nos sœurs.
Les petits soins, les attentions fines,
Sont nés, dit-on, chez les Visitandines ;
L’heureux *Ver-Vert* l’éprouvoit chaque jour ;
Plus mitonné qu’un Perroquet de cour,

Tout

Tout s'occupoit du beau pensionnaire ;
 Ses jours couloient dans un noble loisir :
 Au grand dortoir il couchoit d'ordinaire,
 Là, de cellule il avoit à choisir :
 Heureuse encor, trop heureuse la mere
 Dont il daignoit au retour de la nuit,
 Par sa présence honorer le réduit !
 Très-rarement les antiques Discretes,
 Logeoient l'Oiseau ; des Novices propres
 L'alcove simple étoit plus de son goût ;
 Car, remarquez qu'il étoit propre en tout.
 Quand, chaque soir, le jeune Anachorette
 Avoit fixé sa nocturne retraite,
 Jusqu'au lever de l'astre de Venus
 Il reposoit sur la boëtte aux Agnus :
 A son réveil, de la fraîche Nonette,
 Libre témoin, il voyoit la Toilette ;
 Je dis Toilette, & je le dis tout bas ;
 Oui, quelque part, j'ai lû, qu'il ne faut pas,
 Aux fronts voilés, des miroirs moins fideles
 Qu'aux fronts ornés de ponpons & dentelles ;
 Ainsi qu'il est pour le Monde & les Cours,
 Un art, un goût de modes & d'atours,
 Il est aussi des modes pour le voile ;
 Il est un art de donner d'heureux tours
 A l'étamine, à la plus simple toile :
 Souvent l'effain des folâtres amours,
 Effain qui sçait franchir grilles & tours,
 Donne aux bandeaux une grace piquante,
 Un air galant à la guimpe flotante ;
 Enfin, avant de paroître au parloir,
 On doit au moins deux coups d'œil au miroir,
 Ceci soit dit, entre nous, en silence ;
 Sans autre écart revenons au héros.
 Dans ce séjour de l'oïfive indolence,
Ver-Vert vivoit sans ennuis, sans travaux,
 Dans tous les cœurs il regnoit sans partage :
 Pour lui sœur Thecle oublioit les moineaux ;
 Quatre Serins en étoient morts de rage,
 Et deux Matous, autrefois en faveur,
 Dépérissoient d'envie & de langueur.

' At dinner-time, the pamper'd glutton ate
 Whate'er he lik'd ; from any mother's plate :
 All this beside the secret sugar'd things
 That some good-natur'd sister hourly brings.

For

For *Ver-vert's* indefatigable paunch,
Tho' ever cramming, was for ever staunch.
The petty cares among those dames, 'tis thought,
Were either born, or to perfection brought !
This *Ver-vert* found.—Not ev'n at court, tis said,
To the queen's *Poll* was more attention paid.

When night approach'd, he, like a *sultan*, chose
The fav'rite cell, in which he would repose.
Nice was, indeed, his choice ; for, it appears,
He never harbour'd with a nun of years :
But where he found a nunlet young and neat,
There he was sure to make his ev'n-retreat.
Upon the box, her *agnuses* that kept
And other holy toys, he perch'd, and slept.
Whether, with her, his ev'ning hymn he said ;
Or, graceless, went, without a pray'r, to bed ;
It is not known—Yet probably, I ween,
He to *her* orisons might say : “ Amen.”
Nor is it known what were his holy dreams :
Ideal cracknels ? or ideal créams ?
All that, as yet, I have for certain found
About his sleep, is—that his sleep was found.

But soon as break of day begins to peep ;
And busy bells rouse lazy nuns from sleep ;
He too awakes, to view with curious eyes,
Fresh from her couch, the lovely vestal rise :
To see her lave, and dress—in short, to share
In all her little toilet's morning care.
Toilet, I say, but say in lowly tone,
What to the vulgar ought not to be known—
Toilet, I say—For I have heard it said,
That nuns themselves call in the toilet's aid
To raise their charms, and make them still appear
Devoutly decent, ev'n in holy gear.
Not a less faithful mirrour is requir'd,
When holy fronts are meant to be attir'd
In simple gauze, than is requir'd to place
On fronts profane *bijoux* and Brussels-lace.
For, as the court and city have *their* modes ;
Just so it happens in *those* blest abodes ;
Where as much art and taste may be display'd
In the adjustment of a simple braid,
As by the mundane fair-one is employ'd
To deck herself in all the pomp of pride.

Nay,

Nay, oft the free and fancy-following loves,
 Forsaking parks, and palaces, and groves,
 Have wing'd their way o'er convent-walls and gates;
 And, 'spite of bolts; and bars, and iron grates,
 Shed all their influence on a vestal's face,
 And giv'n to weeds and veils resistless grace.
 This by the bye—Now to my tale again,
 Of which no more I mean to break the chain.

In this abode of ease and indolence
Ver-vert resided, like a Persian prince.
 Idle, inactive, without toil or care,
 He reign'd in all the hearts of all the fair.
 For him, her sparrows, ah! how hard their lot!
 Her darling sparrows sister *Ann* forgot.
 Four sweet canaries, once the parlour's pride,
 Now disregarded, broke their hearts, and died!
 Ev'n the two mastiffs, guardians of the door,
 And mighty, mighty favourites before,
 Neglected lie upon uncushion'd benches;
 And, through pure envy, waste away by inches!

Our readers will see the translation is not very exact. *Matou* is, we think, injudiciously changed for mastiff; old cats and old maids, being always considered as congenial. The translator says, very truly, we have no word that fully expresses *les petits soins*: *attentions*, however, would render the phrase better than *petty cares*; *soins*, in the sense in which it is used here, does not mean cares at all, but *observances*, *little offices*, which we render to such as we desire to please—two of the prettiest lines,

‘ Enfin, avant de paroître au parloir,
 On doit au moins deux coups d’œil au miroir’—

are not translated at all. *Nunlet* is neither French nor English. *Bijou* is a word purely French, which has an English word *jewel*, exactly corresponding to it: we cannot, therefore, see the propriety of leaving that word untranslated in a publication, the professed business of which is to translate. The words *lave*, *gear*, have a stiffness that do not accord with the general style of the poem, which is not that of the grave, but of the light mock heroic. We are thus particular, not from a spirit of captiousness, but because we think it more serviceable to give particular than general criticism. If it were our present business to criticize Gresset himself, we should suggest that, perhaps, he would have told his story more neatly, had he concluded it with the arrival of his hero at Nantes.

Travels through Arabia, and other Countries in the East.
(Concluded from Vol. VIII. p. 160.)

WE now proceed to the second volume of these interesting Travels, which contains a general description of Arabia, and its several provinces; with our author's voyage from Mokha to Bombay and Surat, whence he returned to Europe.

‘ If any people in the world afford in their history an instance of high antiquity, and of great simplicity of manners, the Arabs surely do. Coming among them, one can hardly help fancying one's self suddenly carried backwards to the ages which succeeded immediately after the flood. We are here tempted to imagine ourselves among the old patriarchs, with whose adventures we have been so much amused in our infant days. The language, which has been spoken for time immemorial, and which so nearly resembles that which we have been accustomed to regard as of the most distant antiquity, completes the illusion which the analogy of manners began.

‘ The country in which this nation inhabits, affords many objects of curiosity, no less singular than interesting. Intersected by sandy deserts, and vast ranges of mountains, it presents on one side nothing but desolation in its most frightful form, while the other is adorned with all the beauties of the most fertile regions. Such is its position, that it enjoys, at once, all the advantages of hot and of temperate climates. The peculiar productions of regions, the most distant from one another, are produced here in equal perfection. Having never been conquered Arabia has scarcely known any changes, but those produced by the hand of nature; it bears none of the impressions of human fury, which appear in so many other places.

‘ With all these circumstances, so naturally calculated to engage curiosity, Arabia has been hitherto but very little known. The ancients, who made their discoveries of countries, by conquering them, remained ignorant of the state and history of a region, into which their arms could never penetrate. What Greek and Latin authors mention concerning Arabia, proves, by its obscurity, their ignorance of almost every thing respecting Arabs. Prejudices relative to the inconveniences and dangers of travelling in Arabia, have hitherto kept the moderns in equal ignorance. I shall have occasion to remark, that our best books of geography abound with capital errors upon this head; as, for instance, concerning the subjection of the Arabs to the Turks and Persians.

‘ For these reasons, I have resolved to give a more minute and circumstantial description of a country, and a people, which deserve to be better known than they are at present. In the course of the former part of my travels, I have mentioned in part what

I saw myself. But, as during so short a stay in Arabia, I had time to travel over only a few of the provinces of that widely extended country, I sought information concerning the rest, from different honest and intelligible Arabs. This information I was most successful in obtaining among the men of letters and the merchants; persons in public offices were more entirely engrossed with their own affairs, and generally of a more reserved character.

‘ This mode of obtaining my information appeared to carry with it several peculiar advantages; and it will be of no less utility, that I distinguish in this manner between what I observed myself, and what I was informed of by others. The reader will thus be enabled to discern between what I mention barely upon the authority of my own observation, and what I relate upon the concurrent evidence of many of the most enlightened persons in the nation. I shall find many more favourable opportunities of introducing certain particulars which I could not otherwise have inserted in the account of my travels, without interrupting too frequently the progress of the narrative. The reader will also be better entertained, when presented with a sketch, exhibiting the features no less of the country, than of the people inhabiting it.

‘ I should have wished to add a brief compend of the history of this singular nation. But this I found impossible. In the East there are no libraries, and no men of deep erudition, resources which a traveller might find with great facility in Europe. Yet there are ancient Arabic historians; but the copies of their works are very rare, as I learned at Kaira and Mokha. It would be of consequence, however, to examine those authors, who are still unknown in Europe. The search, I am persuaded, could hardly prove fruitless. Those works would throw new light on several epochs in the history of ancient nations.’

It is much to be regretted that every endeavour is not used, in order to recover such Arabian manuscripts as treat of their history preceding the æra of Mahomet. The race of Tobba, is represented as the most ancient line of monarchs in Arabia; and, by the tradition of the natives, this was a foreign house, which came from the neighbourhood of Samarcand, and conquered and civilized Arabia. The Hamjare monarchs succeed in fame: but their history is also involved in deep obscurity.

Of the government of the Arabs, Mr. Niebuhr presents a curious account:

‘ The Bedouins, or pastoral Arabs, who live in tents, have many Schiechs, each of whom governs his family with power almost absolute. All the Schiechs, however, who belong to the same tribe, acknowledge a common chief, who is called Schech es Scheuch, Schiech of Schiechs, or Schech el Kbir, and whose
authority

authority is limited by custom. The dignity of grand Schiech is hereditary in a certain family; but the inferior Schiechs, upon the death of a grand Schiech, choose the successor out of his family, without regard to age or lineal succession, or any other consideration, except superiority of abilities. This right of election, with their other privileges, obliges the grand Schiech to treat the inferior Schiechs rather as associates than as subjects, sharing with them his sovereign authority. The spirit of liberty, with which this warlike nation are animated, renders them incapable of servitude.

‘ This spirit is less sensibly felt among those who live in towns, or are employed in husbandry. It was easier to reduce them under subjection: In the fertile districts of this country, there have always been monarchies, more or less extensive, formed, either by conquest, or by religious prejudices. Such are the present dominions of the sheriffe of Mecca, of the imams of Sana and Maskat, and of some princes in the province of Hadramaut. However, as these countries are intersected by large ranges of mountains, the mountains are occupied by independent Schiechs.’

‘ The idea of forming republican governments seems never to have occurred to the Arabians. This form is not a necessary consequence of the primitive condition of mankind. It must have originated among people whose patience was exhausted by the outrages of arbitrary power; or sometimes, perhaps, from the fortuitous concourse of persons not connected by the ties of family-relation. The united states of Haschidu Bekil are not so much a federative republic, as an association of several petty princes, for the purpose of mutual defence against their common enemies. Their government resembles that of the German empire, not the States of Switzerland, or the United Provinces. Concerning the pretended republic of Brava, upon the eastern coast of Africa, little certain is known. There is ground for thinking that it likewise is merely a confederation among the Arabian Schiechs in that country.’

These reflections are very just, and it may be observed that the Greek and Roman democracies, present additional proofs that the chief spring of that form of government, is the tyranny of monarchs. A lesson of the utmost importance to teach kings moderation, and attention to the wishes of the people.

Perhaps the most interesting sections of this work are, the twenty-fourth, on the Bedouins or wandering Arabs; the twenty-fifth, on the religion and character of the Arabs; the twenty-sixth, on the manners and customs of the Arabians; the twenty-seventh, on their language and sciences; the twenty-eighth, on their agriculture; and the next, on the natural history of Arabia. But we have already dwelt so long on this

work, that we must confine ourselves to a few extracts. In the present age of political disquisition, the account of the constitution of government among the wild Arabs may be found curious.

‘ The dignity of Schiech is hereditary, but is not confined to the order of primogeniture. The petty Schiechs, who form the hereditary nobility, choose the grand Schiech out of the reigning family, without regarding whether he be more nearly or more distantly related to his predecessor.

‘ Little or no revenue is paid to the grand Schiech ; and the other Schiechs are rather his equals than his subjects. If dissatisfied with his government, they depose him, or go away with their cattle, and join another tribe. These emigrations, which happen pretty frequently, have reduced some tribes, which were once potent, to a low and inconsiderable state ; and have greatly augmented the numbers and powers of some petty tribes.

‘ Personal slavery is established among the Bedouins ; but none of them are *ascripti glebæ*. A peasant, when dissatisfied with his master, may quit his service, and remove any where else.

‘ The Bedouins, who live in tents in the desert, have never been subdued by any conqueror ; but such of them as have been enticed, by the prospect of an easier way of life, to settle near towns, and in fertile provinces, are now, in some measure, dependent on the sovereigns of those provinces.

‘ Such are the Arabs in the different parts of the Ottoman empire. Some of them pay a rent or tribute for the towns or pasturages which they occupy. Others frequent the banks of the Euphrates, only in one season of the year ; and, in winter, return to the desert. These last acknowledge no dependence on the Porte.

‘ Neither are, properly speaking, subject to the Turks ; to whom, on the contrary, they would be dangerous neighbours, if the pachas did not find means to sow dissensions among the tribes and great families, when there are more than one pretender to the dignity of Schiech of Schiechs.

‘ The policy of the Turks occasions frequent wars among the Bedouins ; but these are neither long nor bloody.

‘ Whenever the Turks interfere in their quarrels, all the tribes combine to repulse the common enemy of the whole nation.

‘ Every grand Schiech justly considers himself as absolute lord of his whole territories ; and accordingly exacts the same duties upon goods carried through his dominions as are levied by other princes. The Europeans are wrong in supposing the sums paid by travellers to the grand Schiechs to be merely a ransom to redeem them from pillage.’

From this we shall pass to the domestic life of the Arabs.

‘ Arabia

• Arabia affords no elegant or splendid apartments for the admiration of the traveller. The houses are built of stone, and have always terrace roofs. Those occupied by the lower people are small huts, having a round roof, and covered with a certain herb. The huts of the Arabs on the banks of the Euphrates are formed of branches of the date tree, and have a round roof covered with rush mats. The tents of the Bedouins are like those of the Kurdes and Turcomans. They have the aspect of a tattered hut. I have formerly remarked, that they are formed of coarse stuffs prepared by the women.

• The palaces and houses of Arabians of rank display no exterior magnificence. Ornaments are not to be expected in the apartments of men who are strangers to all luxury, except what consists in the number and the value of the horses, servants, and arms which they keep. The poor spread their floors with straw mats, and the rich with fine carpets. No person even enters a room, without having first put off his shoes. A Frenchman boasts of having maintained the honour of his nation, by wearing his shoes in the governor of Mecca's hall of audience. It is just such another boast, as if an Arabian envoy should vaunt of trampling on the chairs of an European lord.

• The men of every family always occupy the fore part of the house, and the women the back part. If the apartments of the men are plain, those of the women, on the contrary, are most studiously set off with decorations. Of this I saw a specimen in a haram, which was nearly finished for a man of rank. One room in it was wholly covered over with mirrors; the roof, the walls, the doors, the pillars, presented all so many looking glasses. The floor was to be set with sofas, and spread with carpets.

• Arabians, in circumstances which admit not of their having separate apartments for the females of the family, are careful, whenever they carry a stranger into the house, to enter before him, and cry *tarik*, retire. Upon this notice, given by the master of the house, the women instantly disappear, and even his very best friends see not one of them. A man must, indeed, deny himself this sight; for it is reckoned highly impolite to salute a woman, or even to look her stedfastly in the face. To avoid receiving strangers in their houses, shopkeepers and artisans expose their wares, and follow their respective trades, in the open streets.

• The retired life of the women disposes them to behave respectfully to the other sex. I met a Bedouin lady, who, purely out of respect, left the road, and turned her back upon me; and I saw her do the same to other men. I several times have seen women kiss the hands of a man of distinction, or kneel to kiss his feet.

• The great often have in their halls basins with jets d'eau, to

cool the air. I have mentioned that which we saw in the imam of Sana's hall of audience. The edges of the bason were coated with marble, and the rest of the floor was covered with rich carpets.

‘ As the people of the East wish to keep their floors very clean, they spit very little, although they smoke a great deal. Yet to spit is not reckoned a piece of impoliteness. I have seen some persons of rank use a spitting box, and others spit on the bottom of the wall, behind the cushions on which they sat.

‘ As the floors are spread with carpets, and cushions are laid round the walls, one cannot sit down, without inconvenience, on the ground; and the use of chairs is unknown in the East. The Arabians practise several different modes of sitting. When they wish to be very much at their ease, they cross their legs under the body. I found indeed, by experience, that this mode of sitting is the most commodious for people who wear long cloaths, and wide breeches, without any confining ligatures. It seems to afford better rest, after fatigue, than our posture of sitting upon chairs. In presence of superiors, an Arab sits with his two knees touching each other, and with the weight of the body resting upon the heels. As in this position a person occupies less room than in the other, this is the posture in which they usually place themselves at table. I often tried it, but found it extremely uneasy, and could never accustom myself to it. In many parts of Arabia, there are long, low chairs, made of straw mats; but they sit cross-legged on them, as well as on the carpets.

‘ The life which the Arabians lead in their houses, is so vacant and unvaried, that they cannot help feeling it irksome. Their natural vivacity prompts them to seek amusements out of doors. They frequent coffee-houses and markets, and are fond of assembling in public meetings as often as possible. Yet they have not the same means of diversion as other nations. What I have formerly said concerning the amusements of the inhabitants of the East, respects the Arabians only in part. They are often obliged to take up with sedentary and domestic amusements, which to Europeans appear very insipid.

‘ It is, no doubt, to divert the tedium of a sedentary life, that the people of the East make so much use of tobacco. The Arabians, notwithstanding the natural dryness of their constitution, and the warmth of their climate, smoke still more than the inhabitants of the northern provinces of Asia. They use the long Persian pipe, which I have already described. A custom peculiar to Arabia, is, that persons of opulence and fashion carry always about them a box filled with odoriferous wood. They put a bit of this wood into any person's pipe, to whom they wish to express particular respect; and it communicates to the tobacco a fragrant smell, and a very agreeable taste.

• I never saw the Arabians use opium, like the Turks and the Persians. Instead of taking this gratification, they constantly chew kaad. This is the buds of a certain tree, which are brought in small boxes from the hills of Yemen. Persons who have good teeth chew these buds just as they come from the tree : for the use of old men it is first brayed in a mortar. It seems to be from fashion merely that these buds are chewed ; for they have a disagreeable taste ; nor could we accustom ourselves to them. I found likewise that kaad has a parching effect upon the constitution, and is unfavourable to sleep.

• The lower people are fond of raising their spirits to a state of intoxication. As they have no strong drink, they, for this purpose, smoke haschisch, which is the dried leaves of a sort of hemp. This smoke exalts their courage, and throws them into a state, in which delightful visions dance before the imagination. One of our Arabian servants, after smoking haschisch, met with four soldiers in the street, and attacked the whole party. One of the soldiers gave him a sound beating, and brought him home to us. Notwithstanding his mishap, he would not make himself easy, but still imagined, such was the effect of his intoxication, that he was a match for any four men.

We shall close our extracts with an account of Arabian poetry and eloquence.

• The Arabians have been always accounted admirers of poetry. Their early history records many instances of the estimation in which they held this art, even before the days of Mahomet, and of the glory which any family acquired that produced a poet.

• The Arabians have no great poets among them at present, although they still cultivate poetry, and sometimes reward those who excel in it. The best poets are among the Bedouins of Dsjof. A Schiech of that country was, a few years since, imprisoned at Sana. The Schiech, observing a bird upon the roof of a house, recollected an opinion of those pious Mussulmen, who think it a meritorious action to deliver a bird from a cage. He thought that he himself had as good a right to liberty as any bird, and expressed this idea in a poem, which his guards, got by heart, and which becoming generally known, at length reached the monarch's ears, who was so pleased with it, that he set the Schiech at liberty, although he had been guilty of various acts of robbery,

• The Arabians often sing the exploits of their Schiechs. Not long since, the tribe of Khafael, having obtained a victory over the pacha of Bagdad, made a song, in which the actions of every one of their schiechs were celebrated. But the tribe of Khafael being beaten next year by the pacha, a poet of Bagdad made a parody of the Arabian song, in which he extolled the valour of the pacha and his officers. In my time, the song of the Arabians

still continued to be sung at Bagdad, and among the Bedouins. When Affad, pacha of Damascus, who had long commanded the caravans, and was beloved by the Arabians, was assassinated by order of the sultan, the Bedouins made an elegy on his death, and sang it openly in the towns of Syria. That piece is in the form of a dialogue between some Arabians, the daughter of the Schiech of the tribe of Harb, and the lieutenant of the assassinated pacha.

‘ A Maronite informed me, that the poets of Syria sent their compositions to the academy of Dsjamea el Ashar, at Kahira; and did not sing them publicly till they had received the approbation of that academy.

‘ In a country like Arabia, where occasions of speaking in public seldom occur, eloquence is an useless accomplishment, and therefore cannot be much cultivated. The Arabians say, however, that they hear great orators in their mosques. As Europeans are not admitted to hear those sermons, I never had an opportunity to satisfy myself in respect to the truth of this account of the sacred eloquence of Arabia.

‘ The only theatres for the exercise of profane eloquence are the coffee-houses in Arabia, Egypt, and Syria. Those coffee-houses are commonly large halls, which have their floors spread with straw mats, and are illuminated at night by a multitude of lamps. The guests are served with pipes, and a cup of coffee. As the Arabians never engage in any game, and sit still without entering into conversation with one another, they would find their evenings extremely irksome, if readers and orators did not attend in the coffee-houses to amuse them. These are commonly Mullach, or poor scholars.

‘ Such of them as are content with the praise of reading or repeating the works of others, select chosen passages from some favourite authors, such as, among the Arabians, the history of Autar, an Arabian hero who lived before Mahomet; the adventures of Rustan Sal, a Persian hero; or of Beber, king of Egypt; the history of the Ayubites, anciently sovereigns of Arabia; and the life of Bahluldán, a buffoon in the court of Haroun El Raschid. The last of these books contains some good morality.

‘ Those Mullachs who aspire to the praise of invention make tales and fables, which they walk about and recite; or assuming oratorical consequence, deliver discourses upon any subjects they choose. When the orator has ended, he obtains a voluntary contribution from his hearers. This, although but a very moderate reward, encourages those poor Mullachs to learn to recite gracefully, or to compose tales and speeches with some success. At Aleppo, I heard of a man of distinction who studied for his own pleasure, yet had gone the round of all the coffee-houses in the city to pronounce moral harangues.

‘ At

‘ At Constantinople, assemblies in the coffee-houses are, for political reasons, prohibited; and the decoction of coffee is sold only in the shops. The Turks, an ignorant, grave, and silent nation, are indeed not fond of public orators, and have no relish for an amusement, so delightful to the Arabians, who have greater sensibility for the beauties of poetry and eloquence.’

Upon the whole, we look upon the present translation, with all its faults, as an useful and amusing work. It is accompanied with maps and prints; and it is sufficient to say, that they are engraved in Scotland, as an indication that they are beneath mediocrity. Ireland much excels our other sister kingdoms in this respect: perhaps the want of encouragement at home, induces the best Scottish engravers to migrate to London.

An Essay on the Disease produced by the Bite of a mad Dog, or other rabid Animal. By James Mease, M.D. of Philadelphia. With a Preface and Appendix by J. C. Lettsom, M.D. F. R. S. &c. 8vo. 3s. sewed. Dilly. 1793.

THIS Essay is the inaugural work of a young physician, and in that view, little more is to be expected than ingenuity of argument, and an extensive acquaintance with the doctrines of different writers on the subject; and it would be doing him injustice not to say, he has performed his task with no small share of ability.

The chief purpose of this undertaking is to establish the doctrines lately advanced by Drs. Percival, Rush, &c. namely, that the disease resulting from the bite of a mad animal is purely spasmodic, and agreeing in a great measure with tetanus, and that the hydrophobia is so far from being the primary disease, that it is merely a symptom. The author begins by describing, with some degree of accuracy, the history of this formidable morbid affection, the symptoms of which are well discriminated; and in the course of this investigation we find many diseases noticed, in which hydrophobia has occurred as a symptom. The author's reasoning as to the cause of it, we shall lay before our readers. He says,

‘ The explanation, therefore, that I would propose of this symptom is as follows: in consequence of the action of the poison on the nerves of the body, as before mentioned, a morbid and excessive degree of sensibility is induced, whereby the action of the slightest stimuli produces the most disagreeable effects. The fauces, also, particularly the muscles employed in deglutition, partake of this general morbid state: as soon, therefore, as any liquid touches them, they are seized with spasmodic affections, which

consequently excite pain ; in the very irritable state of the parts, this pain becomes extreme ; on a second attempt, therefore, to drink, or a mere motion being made to it, the idea of the patient's former sufferings will be immediately excited, and consequently he will refuse it with disgust.

‘ But even this pain may be excited by the irritation of the saliva on the very irritable fauces, whereby an attempt will be made to swallow it ; and this gives the first idea of disgust to fluids, before any exertion has been made to drink. Accordingly the patient will endeavour to avoid a repetition of an act which excited so much pain, and any liquor will be refused afterwards ; or the mere sight of the water, renewing the idea of his pain, will produce the same effect. This explains the cause of the terror shewn by some persons in the first stage of this disease, before any attempt has been made to drink ; and which has seemed to establish the common idea, that the aversion from fluids was not owing to a difficulty of swallowing, but to a specific dread of them.’

The definition of the disease is next considered, with the principal causes which have been assigned as influencing the late or early attack. These are, ‘ 1st. the part bitten ; 2dly. the stage of the animal's disease at the time of inflicting the bite ; 3dly. the difference of the original virulence of the poison ; 4thly. the quantity inserted into the wound :’ but he considers these as matters of no importance, being rather disposed to attribute this circumstance to original conformation or to certain effects produced by the climate. The first of these, the author thinks, may cause considerable variation in the period between the bite and its consequences, in as much as poisons of a sedative nature, of which sort he supposes the canine virus, act, in irritable and debilitated habits, both quicker and more violently. In support of this opinion, besides reasoning from analogy, a few instances are quoted from different authorities. With regard to the effects of climate, the author argues from the more frequent appearance of tetanus in the warmer regions ; and quotes a case from Dr. Gray, in which a patient died hydrophobous on the evening of the day on which he received the bite.

Our author then proceeds to describe the symptoms of rabies in dogs ; but on this subject nothing is remarked which was not before well known. The probable causes of it, he thinks, are putrid aliment, and exposure to intense heat and cold. The latter, however, are only supposed to be conducive to the disease from their debilitating effects.

The remote causes producing this disease in man are next enumerated ; and here the author examines how far it is likely that absorption, in consequence of a wound, inspiration of
poisonous

poisonous effluvia by the lungs, or the animal's saliva applied to the common skin, are capable of producing hydrophobia. On this subject, however, we do not entirely coincide with him in the opinion that it is produced by nervous irritation in the part itself, independent of absorption, as we think the almost uniform reulceration of the bitten part a strong proof of excited absorption. We shall, however, select the passage in which this point is argued, in order that our readers may form their own judgment of it.

‘ If an actual absorption of the virus took place, we should uniformly find, that it would stop at the first lymphatic gland which was situated between the place of absorption and the common receptacle of the thoracic duct, and there cause a swelling and inflammation, similar to what is constantly observed to take place in the absorption of the poison producing the small-pox, venereal disease, or of pus of any kind. No such appearance, however, has ever been noticed by the writers of any of the cases on record. Dr. Hamilton, indeed, speaking of the pain felt in the course of the lymphatics, and in the axilla, or groin, of the inoculated arm or leg, observes, “ the same may be said of the venereal disease; and the same remark has been noted in the absorption of the poison from rabid animals.” But in all the histories which I have consulted, with a direct reference to this circumstance, I have never found it mentioned; and in the many cases which Dr. Hamilton has abridged from various authors, and subjoined to his treatise, this affection is not taken notice of in any one of them. This he certainly would not have omitted, had he met with it in a single case, inasmuch as it tended, in so decisive a manner, to have confirmed his assertion respecting the absorption of the poison. A pain in the bitten part, as I have frequently mentioned, is usually the first symptom of the general attack, but no pain in any of the lymphatic glands is ever noticed. Nay, Mr. Babbington expressly observes, that the boy, whose case he relates, “ complained of a pain in his right arm (the bitten part), which was attentively examined, but without any discovery of inflammation, or enlargement of the glands of the axilla.” Dr. Vaughan likewise observes, that “ the progress of the virus, towards an admission into the system, cannot be discovered by diseased lymphatics between the wound and the next conglobate gland, or, what is more common, in the gland itself.”

‘ But, granting that the virus is absorbed and carried into the circulation, yet still a difficulty remains in accounting for the symptoms of the disease: for if, like the contagion of the small-pox and the venereal disease, the canine virus enters the circulation, it would affect the arterial system, and produce an inflammatory state of the whole body. The pulse would then become
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full and hard, the heat increased, and these symptoms would be accompanied by others, which are well known to occur in inflammatory diseases. None of these symptoms, however, are observed to appear in the present disease; and the histories of numerous cases inform us, that the pulse is weak, quick, and intermitting, and that a fever seldom or ever occurs. The blood also, when drawn from persons labouring under the small-pox, or any other inflammatory disease, seldom fails to be covered with a *buffy* coat or *fxe*; but this has never appeared in any case of the present disease: for repeated observation has shewn, that it is no ways different from that drawn from a person in health.

* Independently of the want of similarity in the symptoms of the disease produced by the canine virus, with those which originate with an absorbed poison, the very great difference in the periods at which the present disease appears, militates strongly against the idea of absorption. In every case of the transmission of a poison into the system, through the medium of the lymphatics, the greatest uniformity is observed. The small-pox and venereal disease have each their particular and determinate periods of attack, from which they rarely depart in any climate or constitution; but the canine poison is greatly influenced by both those circumstances, and has been known to infect, in all the intermediate periods, between the first day of a bite, and nineteen months afterwards.'

In opposition to this argument, many instances of infection taking place without any inflammation of the neighbouring glands, both from venereal and variolous matter, might, we believe, be very easily adduced.

With regard to the proximate cause of hydrophobia, Dr. Mease supposes that 'the virus induces a general debility of the nerves, and deprives them of their healthy tone, and the customary energy which they had over the whole system.' It would take up too much room to enter into the arguments brought in support of this opinion, nor can we say they are remarkable for their novelty, having before been very ably stated by Dr. Rush in his treatise on the same subject.

We are now brought by the author to the last and most important point, namely, the prevention and cure of the disease. After speaking of the well known inefficacy of the many remedies in common estimation, and proposing repeated affusions of cold and warm water as advised by Dr. Haygarth, he says,

'After applying a caustic to the wound, it ought to be prevented from healing; whereby the poison will be evacuated; for until the time of its action, there is great reason to suppose that it lies in the part where it was originally inserted. The use of bark ought then to be begun, and continued, until the common period

period has passed, at which the symptoms generally commence. Preparations of iron, and particularly the prepared steel, may be advantageously joined to the bark. By the use of these medicines, such a degree of vigour will be given to the system, as will prevent the action of the virus from taking place; or, if this should actually come on, it must be evident that they will be slight, and consequently greater hopes may be entertained, that the disease will be overcome, than if the system was not under the operation of so powerful a tonic.'

The indications of cure he conceives to be, '1st. To diminish the morbid sensibility of the system; and 2dly, to restore that degree of vigour which it had lost in consequence of the action of the poison upon it.' With this intention, he recommends opium in large doses, and takes notice of the practice, lately suggested, of external frictions with oil. The cold-bath he thinks may likewise be of service, though not employed to the extent of half drowning the patient as formerly; but for the same reason, and in the same manner as in tetanus. Along with these, the usual means of strengthening the system with bark and other tonics, food of a nourishing quality, &c. are to be used, and that to as great an extent as possible. Musk, the author has no dependence on; but, in lieu of it, he recommends æther, both on account of its property of calming spasmodic affections, and the suddenness of the operation. In addition to these methods are to be employed mercurial frictions to the throat and neck in the quantity of half an ounce three times a day. During this time, particular care is to be taken to prevent depressing passions of the mind, on account of their well known power of producing and increasing diseases of a spasmodic character. Dr. Mease concludes by saying, that it is only by experience that the efficacy of any mode of treatment can be ascertained, and cites two instances of persons treated in the foregoing manner successfully. We must observe, however, that these are far from being sufficient proofs of its efficacy, and, after all, for a preventative, we apprehend, our dependence must be on *excision of the bitten part*, and on that *only*.

Having thus noticed, and to the extent it justly merits, this ingenious treatise on a subject of the last importance to the lives and happiness of mankind, we shall now say something of the *company* in which we find it; and very glad we are of an opportunity of doing the author this piece of justice.

Dr. Mease's publication is introduced by a Preface from a medical gentleman, of whose name, brought so continually before the public eye, it would be strange if any were ignorant. This informs us that Dr. Mease's Essay came to Dr.

LETTSON'S

LETTSON's hands through those of Dr. Rush of Philadelphia; that DR. LETTSON, not thinking (as we suppose) the book large enough, or the share he so officiously takes as the editor, sufficiently *striking*, collects and annexes a jumble of cases of hydrophobia, most of them from the Medical Society's Memoirs. Of these, as they have already fallen under our notice in their original form, we shall say very little, except, that they are principally related by the editor's 'learned friend' Dr. Shadwell, who, it seems, is not only an M. D. but an F. M. S. a learned distinction which we shall leave to the sagacity of our ingenious readers to develope. Containing nothing that is new, that can be relied on, or that illustrates Dr. Mease's ideas, their insertion appears to have answered no good end to medicine, whatever it may have done to the editor, in affording him an opportunity of shewing off his friends with flattering appendages to their names, and celebrating the importance of the learned assembly in Bolt Court.

We shall conclude our remarks on the work before us by observing, that its valuable parts are not to be found either in the beginning or at the end; but stripping Dr. Mease's performance of the awkward pretensions to knowledge which involve it on either side, we will do its author the justice to say, that, although his researches have not extended to any thing new in the treatment of hydrophobia, few subjects of equal intricacy have been more ably investigated.

The History of France, from the earliest Times, to the present important Era. From the French of Velly, Villaret, Garnier, Mezcray, Daniel, and other eminent Historians; with Notes, critical and explanatory. By John Gifford, Esq. 4to. Vols. I. II. III. 2l. 2s. Boards. Lowndes. 1791.

IN an age of science, says the author of this work, like the present, when the importance of historical knowledge is clearly understood, it becomes needless to expatiate on its peculiar advantages. Numerous are the histories of our own country; philosophers, men of erudition, men of genius, and men of labour, have successively exerted their talents on a subject that affords ample scope for the demonstration of their respective abilities. The annals of Scotland, Ireland, and Wales, have been faithfully delineated; the eastern and western parts of the globe have had their separate historians: scarcely a kingdom, or petty state, in the north or south of Europe, but has engaged the attention of some able writer; while France, alone, has escaped the notice of our English authors.'

To an English reader, therefore, a history of France, faithfully and judiciously treated, would be highly interesting. But
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independent of local considerations, when we recollect the origin of the French, their warlike genius, and generous character in very early periods, their advancement in polite literature in subsequent ages, the form of their ancient government, and their sudden departure, of late, from the monarchical system, so long established, to the republican, the history of the French assumes an importance that can scarcely be challenged by any other nation; interesting alike to the antiquarian, the philosopher, and the politician.

How far Mr. Gifford, under these circumstances, may be qualified to become the historian of France to his own countrymen, we do not at present determine; but shall lay before our readers a few extracts from the work itself, to guide them in forming their judgment.

The foot of time has worn out many of those monuments of antiquity, whence we might have traced the origin of the most illustrious nations. The early history, particularly of those who inhabit that part of Europe that was formerly called Gaul, of our warlike ancestors, the Britons, and of the ancient Franks, who were so frequently assaulted, but never totally conquered by the Romans, is involved in great obscurity. Of their origin different accounts have been given by different writers. But on comparing together some accounts of Cæsar's with Tacitus' description of the manners of the ancient Germans, the only writers in whom, on this subject, much confidence is to be placed, the truth seems to be, that they all originally emigrated from Germany. It is, however, pretty generally agreed that when Honorius was emperor in the West, and Theodosius in the East, that is, in about the year 420, the Franks passed the Rhine, and gained a settlement in Gaul under Pharamond, a prince descended from a very ancient race. The following brief notice of Pharamond, with an account of the famous Salic law, which is curious, we shall lay before the reader :

‘ To Pharamond is commonly ascribed the institution of that famous law, distinguished by the epithet Salic, either from the surname of the prince who published it, or from the name of Salogast, who proposed it; or else from the word Salichame, the place in which the chief men of the nation assembled in order to reduce it into form. Others pretend, that it was so called, because it was expressly made for the Salic lands, which were noble fiefs, given by the first monarchs of Gaul to the Salians; that is, to the principal nobles of their Sale, or court, on the sole condition of military service, exempt from every other species of feudal obligation. And this was the reason why they were not descendible to women, who, from the delicacy of their sex, are dispensed

pened from bearing arms. There are some who maintain, that this word came from the Salians, a tribe of the Franks established in Gaul under the emperor Julian: these assert, that that prince gave them lands under the obligation of personal attendance in time of war. He even made a law of this obligation, they say, which the new conquerors adopted, and called it Salic, from the name of their ancient countrymen.

‘It is a vulgar prejudice to suppose that this law only relates to the succession to the crown, or to the Salic lands. It was neither instituted for the disposal of the kingdom, nor merely for determining the right of individuals to feudal possessions. It is a collection of regulations that extend to almost every thing. It prescribes punishments for thieves and incendiaries; and for a variety of crimes and depredations: it establishes rules for preserving the morals of the subject; for the government; for the order of proceeding in criminal matters; and, lastly, for the maintenance of peace and concord between the different members of the state. Of seventy-one articles which it contains, there is but one which relates to successions; it is couched in these terms—*In the Salic lands no part of the inheritance shall descend to females. It belongs entirely to males.*’

None of the ancient kings of France have acquired greater celebrity than Clovis the First. He it was who finally subdued the Gauls; he was also the first who was converted to Christianity: more to be admired, however, for the success of his arms, and his prudence in the cabinet, than for the justice of his principles, or the moderation of his conduct: the following short description of his conversion we extract, as it affords an example of the miraculous powers which, not unfrequently, we are told, attended the conversions of those early periods: there were other instances also of miracles, which distinguished the reign of this first Christian king of France.

‘The Germans, a warlike people, had made incursions into Gaul, with a view to a settled establishment, in imitation of those nations who had effected the expulsion of the Romans. Clovis, apprised of their intentions, hastened to impede their progress, and met them on the plains of Tolbiac, not far from Cologne, where a bloody battle was fought. The French army had begun to give way, when the king, lifting up his eyes to heaven, exclaimed, “God of my queen Clotildis, if you grant me victory, I here vow to receive baptism, and hereafter to worship no other than you.” Having said this, he rallied his yielding forces, again led them to the charge, pierced, with irresistible ardour, the enemy’s battalions, and at last put them to flight. He then followed them into Germany, where he dispersed the remains of the vanquished army, reduced to obedience a nation hitherto invincible,

cible, and compelled them to pay him an annual tribute. Faithful to his vow, he enquired into the mysteries of the Christian religion; and, on Christmas-day, received baptism, at the church of St. Martin, in the suburbs of the city, from Remigius bishop of Rheims, a prelate equally distinguished for his birth and piety. His sister Alboflèda, and about three thousand of his subjects, followed his example.

* A silly story prevails, that a dove, descended from heaven, brought a phial of balsam, with which Clovis was consecrated, or confirmed. This is what is now called *La Sainte Ampoule*, the Holy Phial; which is kept with extreme care, at Rheims, and contains the oil, used by the monarchs of France at the ceremony of their consecration. It has also been said that this prince received from the hands of an angel, an *Ecu Azur*, spotted with *Fleur de Lys*; but it is certain that the use of armorial bearings did not prevail in France till long after this period.

In Childeric the Third, who retired to the monastery of Sithieu, ended the Merovingian race of the kings of France, which had reigned three hundred and thirty-three years from Pharamond, and two hundred and seventy from the accession of Clovis. In reading the characters of these princes much caution is required, on account of that language of party, which is wont, according to its prevailing bias, to magnify what deserves censure, and to diminish what merits praise. To give a fair colour to the usurpation of Pepin, the first of the Carolingian race, many of the historians of France have described the Merovingian race as the authors of all the calamities of the empire; while, on the other hand, all the subsequent improvements that took place have been ascribed to the Carolingians.

The following character of Pepin is well drawn :

* Pepin possessed great martial abilities, and great political talents, hence his skill and success were equal in the cabinet and the field. Under his auspices, France attained that strength and consequence, which enabled his son to pursue his triumphant career of greatness. But amidst the splendour of his virtues, his vices and defects have been totally forgotten—Not one of his biographers has, in the delineation of his character, noticed the assassination of Theodald, son of Grimoald; the despotic authority which he exerted over his lawful sovereign; the violation of his oath, in deposing Childeric, and taking possession of the throne; or the tyrannical confinement of his brother Carloman in a convent.—These are weighty defects; and, though opposed by many great and glorious actions, are surely sufficient not only to preclude indiscriminate commendation, but to command a considerable degree of censure.

* Pepin

‘ Pepin acquired the surname of Short from his diminutive form, which became a subject of pleasantry to some of his courtiers. The king being informed of their remarks, determined to convince them of their error : with this view, he caused a combat to be exhibited, at the abbey of Ferrieres, between a lion and a bull. The former having thrown down his adversary, Pepin turned to the noblemen, who were present, and asked which of them had courage enough to separate or kill the furious combatants. The bare proposal made them all shudder—Not a soul replied.—I will do it then myself, said the monarch calmly. He accordingly drew his sabre, leaped into the arena, attacked and killed the lion, and then turning to the bull, aimed so severe a blow at his head, that he separated it from his body. The whole court were astonished at this prodigious exertion of courage and strength. The nobles, who had indulged their wit at the expence of the king, were confounded. Pepin, turning towards them, exclaimed in a lofty tone—“David was small, but he overthrew the proud giant who had dared to treat him with contempt.”

As our historian set off with observing, that the history of France is immediately connected with that of England, and that France may be considered as *gentis incunabula nostræ*, he finds frequent occasion to bring forward to notice some important periods in the English history ; he particularly describes the treachery and cruelty by which William, duke of Normandy, gained a settlement in England ; several interesting events in the reign of Henry the Second, and Richard the First, and the circumstances that attended king John in signing Magna Charta, and his violent disputes with the barons.

After relating many particulars, which were preparatory to William’s designs on England, Mr. Gifford proceeds as follows :

‘ Though this concurrence of favourable circumstances had removed many obstacles which had opposed themselves to William’s designs, by affording a colour of justice to his proceedings, and thereby dispelling the doubts of some, who were deterred by scruples of conscience, from engaging in his cause ; yet one essential difficulty still remained to be obviated : this consisted in the means of raising a sufficient sum of money to defray the enormous expences of so vast an undertaking. He, at first, had recourse to the ordinary mode of convening an assembly of the states of Normandy, which accordingly met at Lillebonne ; but when he demanded their permission to raise the necessary supplies by means of a general impost, they unanimously refused to comply with his request, from a judicious preference of the happiness and repose of their country to the dangerous gratification of their sovereign’s ambition ; for they plainly foresaw that, if William succeeded in

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his designs, Normandy would infallibly become a province of England; and that, if he failed in his attempt, the duchy must long feel the effects of his defeat. They therefore represented to him that the late wars having nearly exhausted the principality both of men and money, they were so far from being able to attempt new conquests, that they should even find great difficulty in defending their own territories against the attacks of any powerful invader. They added, that though the claims of William might be founded in justice, they were not aware of any advantage that could possibly accrue to their country from the enterprize; nor were they obliged to serve in foreign expeditions, in which the interest of Normandy was not immediately concerned.

‘The duke, finding there was no probability of succeeding with the states, resolved on a separate application to the most wealthy individuals of the province; and, beginning with those on whom he could place the firmest reliance, obtained by degrees the requisite sum for the equipment of his armament.

‘The counts of Longueville and Mortaigne afforded him great assistance in this negotiation. Odo, bishop of Bayeux, brother to the duke, fitted out forty vessels at his own expence; William Fitz-Osborne, count of Breteuil, and constable of the duchy, provided a similar number, and the bishop of Mons supplied him with thirty. The example of these noblemen was followed by many others; and the states, finding it in vain to persist in refusing the required assistance, as without it he would be enabled to put his project in execution, at last consented to grant his request.’

‘William had collected his fleet early in the summer of 1066, but was prevented from sailing by contrary winds, and different incidents, till the month of September, when it set sail from the harbour of Saint Valori; and, after a fortunate passage, arrived at Pevensey, in Suffex, on Michaelmas-day, when the army was disembarked without the smallest opposition, as a large fleet which Harold had assembled, and which had cruised off the Isle of Wight during the summer, had been dismissed, on a false report that William had discontinued his preparations.

‘After publishing a manifesto as false as his claims were frivolous, he advanced to the vicinity of Hastings, where he was met by the English army, under the command of Harold and his valiant brothers: the fatal battle was fought on the fourteenth of October, and, after an obstinate and bloody conflict, which lasted from morning till night, William, by an artifice, secured that victory which decided the fate of England. The death of Harold left this foreign usurper in possession of the field—and of the kingdom; and the sceptre of Britain, which had been swayed by the Anglo-Saxons for more than six hundred years, was now transferred to the hand of a Norman.

‘The power which William acquired by this new conquest, as-
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forced just subject of alarm to all the neighbouring princes, who repented, when too late, their own weakness, in not opposing his efforts. King Philip, young as he was, conceived that a crowned vassal was an object of apprehension; and he loudly censured the regent, who had assisted the duke of Normandy with money and troops. But Baldwin did not long survive this event: his death was a great loss to the kingdom, which he governed with consummate prudence; and a still greater to the youthful monarch, who now became his own master, at an age when the understanding is generally weak, and the passions are strong. Philip was then but fifteen, and, according to the ancient law of the realm, the king was not of age till he was twenty-one. It does not appear, however, that any other regent was named. The first expedition of the new monarch was into Flanders, whither respect for the memory of Baldwin induced him to carry his arms.

‘It had long been a custom with the counts of Flanders to respect the rights of primogeniture, so far as to leave all their dominions to the eldest son, to the total exclusion of the younger children. The regent left two sons, Baldwin the Sixth, who succeeded him; and Robert, who, according to the romantic ideas of the age, was sent to seek his fortune on the Spanish coast. He landed in Galicia, and, after making a considerable booty, was compelled to retreat to his ships, and return home. He then went, as a pilgrim, to Constantinople, whither he was invited by some Norman gentlemen, who had formed a design of making themselves masters of Greece. But their project being detected, Robert turned back, with a firm resolution of establishing himself in the vicinity of Flanders. He accordingly collected what troops he could, and made an attack upon Friezeland, which was then governed by Gertrude of Saxony, widow to count Florent, and guardian to her infant son, Thierri. The Flemish prince, though twice repulsed, renewed his attacks with such determined courage, that the countess, fearing that he must finally succeed, offered him her hand, with the county of Friezeland; which he accepted, and from thence acquired the appellation of Robert the Frison.’

Interspersed in this work are many valuable remarks on the laws, commerce, and manners of the French. Speaking of the assembly of nobles that condemned Aletheus to lose his head, who aspired at the crown, Mr. Gifford observes as follows:

‘These assemblies were often holden by Clotaire; they were called *placita*; and were a species of ambulatory parliament, composed of bishops, chief officers of the crown, dukes, counts, and *farens*, who have since been denominated barons. That which the French assembled this same year, at Bonneuil upon the Marne, was one of the most numerous that had been hitherto seen. All the Burgundian

Burgundian prelates and nobles were present; the prince placed but little reliance on their fidelity, and therefore granted them all they required. These assemblies generally met at one of the royal seats. The predecessors of Clotaire only convened them once a year, in the month of March; they were abolished by the mayors of the palace, and re-established by Pepin the Fat: but, for a long time, they were only holden twice a year.

It must not be supposed, however, that the administration of justice was neglected: each estate and profession had its peculiar tribunal, its laws and its customs. Ecclesiastics were tried by the clergy; the military by officers; the nobles by gentlemen; and the people by *centurions* in the boroughs and villages; by counts in the cities; and by dukes in the capitals. There was no superiority of jurisdiction among these different tribunals, from whose sentences an appeal could only lie to the king himself. If the appeal proved to be well founded, the judge became responsible for costs and damages; if, on the contrary, the sentence complained of appeared to be just, the appellant, if noble, was condemned to pay a pecuniary fine; and if not, to be whipped. Pecuniary fines were almost the only punishments known in those days; and there was scarcely any other crimes than those which affected the state, that were punished with death. The Salic law fixes the sums to be paid to the king by way of fine, and to the party injured by way of reparation. The life of a bishop was valued at nine hundred sols of gold; that of a priest at six hundred; and that of a laic at something less, according to his quality. The centurion did not possess the power of condemning criminals to die; the counts possessed it in certain cases; and the dukes were extremely cautious how they exerted that power. The court sent commissaries, from time to time, into the provinces, never less than two, and always one duke, count, or prelate: their business was to hear complaints, and report them to the king.

Lawyers were unknown during the first race of kings. The judges, such as were not ecclesiastics, administered justice armed with a sword, a battle-axe, and a shield. Their commission, which was but for a time, interdicted them from making any purchase within their jurisdiction. To discharge the office of a judge with propriety, a deep knowledge of the national laws and local customs was essentially requisite. The Frank was tried by the Salic law; the Gaul, who resided beyond the Loire, by the Roman law; and the inhabitants of the northern provinces, by the common law, or custom of the country. The assizes were holden every week or fortnight, according to the number of causes, and always in some public place, that was open to every one. Each person pleaded his own cause—widows and paupers were privileged; they were under the protection of the church, and nothing could be decided against them, until the bishop had been apprised

of it. The prelates were holden in such consideration in those days, that their intercession sufficed to save the life of a criminal, and they could even order a cause to be brought before them, which had been begun in a secular court. This privilege was granted them by a law of Constantine; Charlemagne renewed it; and Lewis the Debonnaire, or *Gentle*, confirmed it. The bishop could decide either in person, or by his official, on every thing that could be considered as a sin—on bargains ratified by oaths, on marriages, wills, sacrilege, perjury, and adultery. This enormous power was founded on the dignity of their character, the sanctity of their lives, and the extent of their capacities. Most of the nobles could neither read nor write: till tired at length with being subjected, like the common people, to the correction of priests, they began to study the law.

‘Sometimes the monarch administered justice himself; the court was then holden at the gate of his palace. When he could not attend in person, he appointed two officers to receive petitions, and to give an immediate answer to such as did not require much consideration. Besides these *masters of requests*, there was a *count-judge*, whose counsellors were military men like himself, and were called aldermen of the palace. This tribunal decided on all matters of state, and all questions by which the prince or the public was affected. When the king presided, assisted by his prelates, abbots, and dukes, the cause was reported to him by the *count-judge*; his majesty then cast up the votes, and pronounced sentence. The form observed in this case may be seen in the second book of Marculphus.’

Though we cannot say that the present work will quite answer the expectation of those, who look in history for greatness of conception, dignity of sentiment, and brilliancy of expression, yet it very well answers the character given of it by Mr. Gifford, viz. as a book of annals of the different sovereigns of France, and of the nations which they governed: and, in this point of view, it has considerable merit. The author has discovered great industry, and writes with ease and perspicuity; but we also meet with frequent instances of incorrectness.

(To be continued.)

A Letter to the Right Hon. William Pitt. By the Rev. Christopher Wyvill, late Chairman of the Committee of Association of the County of York. 8vo. 1s. Johnson. 1793.

THIS is one of that temperate class of publications that we think best calculated to do good in the present crisis of political affairs. Unhappily, indeed, the war, to prevent which

which was the leading motive of Mr. Wyvill's Letter, has actually taken place. Possibly, however, the consideration of those reasons which were meant to prevent war, may have a favourable effect in demonstrating the propriety of its speedy termination, and on this account, we shall not be inattentive to them.

The Letter under our consideration was actually sent, it seems, in the course of correspondence, to Mr. Pitt. From the terms of it, we are led to consider the author as having formerly acted confidentially with that gentleman and the duke of Richmond in their formation of a plan of parliamentary reform.

Our author proceeds to speak of the various opinions which float on the public mind at this juncture, respecting practical improvements in our government.

‘ But it is evident, says he, there is a tendency to violent change, which, though manifested to no great extent at present, is yet a circumstance which deserves the most serious consideration. That this enthusiastic zeal for a total, or a very great and dangerous change in the frame of our legislature, may be checked by the rough hand of authority, straining every judicial and military power to suppress discussion and beat down the free spirit of the people; this may be the wish of Mr. Burke and his disciples, but it cannot, I hope, be yours. Every man of humanity must wish to prevent discord and confusion by lenient means; every prudent lover of liberty must wish to preserve the constitution, not only from external violence and the wild schemes of republican innovators, but from the dangers of internal injury, from those more subtle and more formidable enemies of the constitution, who, availing themselves of the present national fervour of royalty, would brand with infamy every man who dares to point out abuses and express his wish for their correction, even on your temperate principles; without which it is plain, that at no distant period inveterate abuses will have become incorrigible, and the constitution itself must be virtually annihilated.’

In another place he says,

‘ The fears of aristocratical men have been wrought up to an extravagant pitch by the wild eloquence of the enemy of popular rights. He has taught them to believe that their only safety consists in the constant persevering refusal to concede the smallest particle of the redress craved by the people; that if a single concession be made, if a single decayed pin in the frame of parliament be removed, it would open the door to the utmost latitude of change, and the sacrifice of one abuse, or one usurped command of a depopulated borough, would lead, by certain and inevitable

necessity, to all the confusions and horrors of a neighbouring kingdom.'

These evils, the author contends, would be completely averted by the adoption of Mr. Pitt's plan of reform; which he asks his permission to make public, together with other writings on the same subject. He speaks of their insertion in '*this collection*;' but as we nowhere find the papers spoken of, we conclude, the author's *promise to withhold them* for the present, *if desired*, has been claimed by their right honourable author.

The minister's opposition to Mr. Grey's late motion in the house of commons, for a reform in the representation, we find greatly condemned. His plea that *the time* was unfit, is illustrated by the remark that, in the year 1790, 'it was improper to attempt a reformation of parliament, because the people were *indifferent to it*;' and in the year 1792 or 1793, it is improper because they are become *too earnest to obtain it*.'

Our author now advancing more immediately to the subjects which have been held out to justify a war, examines them in their order. He ridicules the assertions of Mr. Burke (to whom, by the way, he attributes a great share of the dangers that threaten this country) 'that the French are a nation of atheists.' Yet, allowing this for the sake of argument, 'is infidelity,' says he, or is even '*idolatry* a justifiable cause of war?' Neither does he think that the murder of their king is a matter which it belongs to any other nation to avenge. When a northern princess mounted the throne of her husband, and completed a revolution in her empire, by means the most atrocious and sanguinary, 'no war of punishment ensued.' Considering the war against France as waged with a view to extinguish principles, and suppress the freedom of opinion, the author pronounces it absolute impotence and absurdity, though he has overlooked a view in which it may not improperly be taken, and in which profligate ministers have often instituted quarrels with other nations; we mean that of holding out to the people some dazzling project to which they may continually turn their eyes; and, at length, lose sight of enquiries into their political condition.

We cannot follow our author through the whole of his arguments, but must content ourselves with observing, that they tend to the establishment of two very important points, namely, that, 'attacked at home, France will be found *unconquerable*,' and that, 'in the course of the struggle, it is probable, that the *means* and the patience of the English people will be *first* exhausted.'

Nenia

Nenia Britannica, or a Sepulchral History of Great Britain, from the earliest Period to its general Conversion to Christianity: including a complete Series of the British, Roman, and Saxon sepulchral Rites and Ceremonies. with the Contents of several Hundred Burial Places; opened under a careful Inspection of the Author. By the Rev. James Douglas, F. A. S. Folio. 3l. 13s. 6d. Boards. White and Son. 1793.

THIS work displays the contents of many barrows, or ancient burial places, opened under the inspection of the author, delineated in plates, well engraven in aqua-tinta by the author himself. Many of the prints are curious and interesting; but some of them might have been omitted, as repetitions, or delineations of objects sufficiently known. In praise of the descriptions, much cannot be said; they are often prolix, nugatory, or deviatory from the subject. Mr. Douglas, whose reading is palpably crude, wanders frequently into ground which he has not sufficiently studied.

To be more particular, the title itself is objectionable, and only applicable to a dissertation on the funereal songs of the ancient Britons. The language is often confused and incorrect: the following phrases from the preface afford specimens; 'The inscription or the medal are the only *facts* which can obviate error:' 'authority will be found to deviate from conjecture.' The reverse of the latter expression would have been proper; the word *deviate* never being used by good writers, if we recollect aright, except in a bad sense.

The work opens with the following general account:

'The sepulchral remains of the ancient inhabitants of Britain will convey little information to the historian, unless, enabled by the discovery of facts, he can ascertain some fixed data for the principles of argument. I shall therefore begin this work with a description of the *small conic tumuli* that are frequently discovered in this island, and which are productive, when neatly and correctly explored, of many curious and valuable relics; the test of these data.

'These tumuli are generally found on barren ground; on commons, moors, sometimes on parochial grounds near villages, of no great name or importance in history. When discovered on cultivated land, their cones or congeries have been levelled by tillage; and it is only by a casual discovery with the plow, or the accidental use of the spade and pick-axe, that the contents of these interments have been found. They seldom exceed thirty-three feet in diameter; the smallest thirteen; the medium twenty-three; and the largest thirty-three. They are raised of earth, sometimes excavated from a spot of ground near the range, and sometimes very neatly fashioned, with the circumjacent sod raised from the plain: their height was originally proportioned to their circumference; but time has compressed their cones, and in many

places laid them almost level to the surface of the ground. They are generally surrounded with a narrow trench, which seems to have been fashioned from a funereal superstitious custom, and not applied to the common or ordinary intent of sepulchral decoration.

‘The cist in which the body was deposited is not always of the same depth; sometimes it does not penetrate the native soil more than half a foot; but when the body has been sumptuously buried, it will exceed ten feet.’

The first plate presents a skeleton, as found in a tumulus. Not to mention the size of the pelvis, and other known distinctions of the male and female skeletons; the former are generally accompanied with instruments of war, the latter with articles of dress and decoration.

In the second print are delineated the ornaments found in a female tomb. Among them is a spoon of silver, perforated with small holes; and, in describing this, Mr. Douglas mounts a hobby horse, which leads him many a strange and eccentric career in other parts of the work. This innocent spoon is, by an odd confusion of ideas, illustrated from the description of the sieve and sheers in *Hudibras*. Hardly indeed can our ingenious author find an ornamental head of crystal, or other appendage of female vanity, without smelling a rat; hardly can he disclose the tomb of a woman, without finding the black art about her. If Mr. Douglas even examines the tumuli of Lancashire, he will hardly discover that of a genuine witch; and all his magical notes might have been kept in his common-place book. His present magical perforated instrument was found ‘a little below the os sacrum, between the femur bones.’

The remarks on the power of numbers, p. 9, are equally delusory and inapplicable.

Plate III. displays a bone, spear-head, umbo of a shield, &c. objects little deserving so large and formal a representation. The next print contains female ornaments; and here, p. 14, 15, 16, 17, 18, 19, we are overwhelmed with magic.

We much doubt the sheers, plate V. and rather suspect them to be pincers; but, fortunately, no sieve was found. Mr. Douglas, however, introduces it, p. 22, and the authority of Godelmanus, who, we dare to say, is a very celebrated unknown author; and nearly related to Goddefendus.

Plate VII. repeats spear-heads, and umbos of shields, surely most unnecessarily. In our opinion, one half of the prints might have been spared.

We need not enter much into the subjects of the other plates; a description presenting but a faint idea, without the delineations, which possess every claim to exactness, and have

certainly high merit in this mode of engraving, in general, well adapted to the objects.

In plate X. is represented one of the most complete and beautiful fibulæ which we have ever seen. Our author's account we shall transcribe.

‘ Fig. 6. A gold fibula, elegantly enchased. The stones within the semicircle of the outward circles are garnet and pale blue turquoise. The stone, like the superior part of a cross, is the turquoise, and one of the same form alternately chased between the semicircles. The vermicular gold chain in the compartment of the second circle, is delicately milled with notches, and enchased on the ground of the fibula; the alternate square setting is garnet, the four small circles, on the third contain in their center a white hemisphere of a shelly substance, with a circular garnet; the triangular enchasement, and the one in form of the head of a cross, turquoise stones, and the intermediate garnet, the fourth circle like the second; the fifth like the first; the sixth forms the umbo which protrudes from the ground of the fibula, and is of a white shelly or coque de perle substance, divided into right angles, with a gold enchasing; the next, or seventh, is gold milled in notches; the light circle next to this is plain gold, which rises higher, and receives the central enchased ornament; the small heads of crosses of a dark tint are turquoise; the rest garnet, excepting the central stone of all, which is lost.

‘ Fig. 7. The reverse of fig. 6. The clasp which receives the acus of this fibula, or broach, is in the form of a snake's head; the circle round the eye, which marks the nostrils, and beading round the neck, is a neat fillagree work; the same may be observed at the base of the vertical hinge of the acus: which hinge is ornamented with garnet and turquoise stones; the cross describing the latter; over the acus is a loop which evidently secured the fibula to the dress, lest, as being a valuable ornament, it might be lost from it. See a loop of this nature to a fibula, in the vignette.

‘ This curious jewel, which I apprehend to be the most elegant sepulchral relic discovered in Britain, is $3\frac{1}{2}$ inches in diameter, and weighs 6 ounces, 5 penny-weights, 18 grains, and $\frac{1}{4}$ of an inch in thickness. It was found near the neck of the skeleton.’

This, with other rich female ornaments, was found in a tumulus at Kingston, on Barnham Downs, near Canterbury, in 1771, by the late Rev. Bryant Fausset.

In p. 50, 51, we have more magic; and even the battle-ax is referred to the favourite subject.

In his observations on glass, p. 60, our author confounds the coarse glass, made by the ancients, with the modern fine glass, first fabricated at Venice. Ancient glass beads, lachrymatories,

matories, urns, vessels, are not uncommon; but it is certain that the ancients never used glass for the elegant purposes of modern life. Amidst the effulgence thrown on the Greek and Roman manners, by their authors, and modern antiquaries, not a trace of our uses of glass in drinking, &c. can be found. And it is clear, from the authors of the middle ages, that the use of fine glass, or Venice crystal, as it was first called, was unknown till about the sixteenth century. In the seventeenth, we find James Howell, (in his Letters) attempting to introduce this art into England. Glass windows were known to the ancients, and some houses in Herculaneum, were, we believe, found to have such; but the glass was our bottle glass, and only semitransparent. As to the expression in the Proverbs of Solomon, 'Look not on wine when it sparkles in the glass,' we rather suspect an anachronism of translators; perhaps the original word implies crystal, or the *mirrhina pocula*, a kind of porcelane: but this we submit to Hebraists. The Hebrew term, as far as we understand, means any transparent substance, for Kimchi and others interpret it, (Isaiah iii. 23,) in that sense, and apply it to the fineness of linen. Plate XVII. of this work, exhibits glass vessels found in tumuli.

The next print represents female toys and ornaments. No. 10 is a large *Indian* cowry; but we rather suspect that these shells are found in other countries besides India; and, at any rate, our author wanders strangely, p. 73, where he confounds, in a large note, this shell with the *concha veneris*, which is a bivalve, and quite dissimilar. In p. 78, for 'inferior to the Hottentots,' the sense requires us to read 'superior.' In p. 94, for 'Onuphius Panvinus,' read 'Onuphrius Panvinus.' In p. 120, for 'Olaius,' read 'Olaus;' and for 'Paluz,' 'Baluz,' Baluzius; and so also p. 126. The Latin note, p. 141, is so full of errors, as to be unintelligible: and the *Imagines Dearum* of Chartarius, is neither curious nor scarce.

The plates amount to thirty-six. At the end we find what the author terms an 'Historic Relation, and general Conclusion,' from which an extract or two shall be given.

* In the course of this work we have ascended from a chain of facts, from the small barrows in clusters, to the Roman sepulchres, and to the large barrows detached on our moors and waste lands. The peculiarities of these monuments have been, to all appearances, sufficiently authentic to infer a claim of high antiquity. The stone monuments near them seem to be connected with their history; whether templar or sepulchral, they will naturally excite a curious investigation; and, as some distinguishing features have
been

been apparently traced, the historic relation may in all probability be deduced from them.

‘ To enter critically on the history of the ancient inhabitants of Britain, is not the view of this work ; it has only to recommend itself by exhibiting memorials which have an undoubted relation to its old inhabitants, and several of which have been presented with features sufficiently expressive to admit of investigation. To this desirable purpose of British colonization, a different arrangement must be made, and descriptions entered into, which will greatly exceed the limits of its original plan ; such apparent facts as may therefore induce an application to certain periods, on which the probability of history may be founded, are only placed before the reader for his contemplation ; and no decision arrogated where there is the slightest ground for conjecture.

‘ It has been already proved by the confession of Saxo, that his History of the Northern Nations, has been formed chiefly from the tradition of the bards. Torfæus, who is the most learned of their writers, and the deepest read in Icelandic monuments, asserts, that the ancient Scandinavian history is full of allegory ; so much so, that it is difficult, if not impossible, to distinguish truth from falsehood ; and it is generally believed, that Icelandic record or Scandinavian history does not exceed the eleventh century. This truth, any reader of moderate penetration may perceive, when he looks into Saxo Grammaticus, Olaus Wormius, Olaus Magnus, and Snorro ; where he will frequently find the customs of the twelfth century, involved with those of an antecedent period. Their sepulchral monuments and stone erections, are recorded by their bards, and the fiction of their tales must be too manifest for any writer of integrity and common sense, to incorporate in his argument. But to adopt the fairy tale of Saxo, on the conquest of Britain and Ireland by Frotho the Third, contemporary with our Saviour, and to adduce, from this account, the erection of our stone monuments by the northern people on this fabulous expedition, would be the height of blind credulity.

‘ The manifest resemblance of these remains, discovered in all the northern and western regions of Europe, to those in Asia, Palestine, Syria, and Egypt, will naturally attract the antiquary to ascertain the cause of this analogy ; and he will doubtless consider whether the same description of people may lay claim to them, or whether the natural coincidence of custom, of a rude and early people, may not equally apply to these remains in every known quarter of the globe. Hence he has recourse to sacred history for his first luminary ; and he there traces the affinity of Jacob's Bethel, with the rough unknown pillar in Britain ; the stone testimony of Joshua ; the Gentile stone, Maseith, or image of adorations, variously considered as stones of memorial or adoption in our island. Hence the large isolated unhewn stone, has been absurdly

surdly found sacred to the Druid, and the name of Gorfeddau given to it, not considering that the name is a latter prefix. Profane historians are afterwards consulted: Semiramis is found to have erected an obelisk; the pyramids of Egypt, sacred to the sun; Venus also, worshipped under this form; and many other quotations from ancient writers, which have been repeatedly enumerated.

‘The antiquary, on this striking discovery of durable monuments, with similar customs in other regions of the globe, enters into a profane and critical investigation of the early peopling of our island; he attempts to discriminate the race of men from the general mixture, and he thus finds these monuments to be more certain guides than history itself. His comparisons have proved them to have existed before the doubtful records of profane history; and his authorities are rendered presumptive by the testimonies of holy writ. They are thus rendered the unerring witnesses of the truth of the sacred text, and the ground tenable on which the historian moves for the history of all antient colonization.’

‘If our stone monuments and barrows near them concur to prove that the inhabitants of this kingdom had a very early origin, we are naturally inclined to enquire who these extreme old inhabitants were. Were they Celts? were they Scythians? are the Celts and Scythians synonymous terms for the old inhabitants of Europe? Or is one an older branch of the same race of people than the other? Cæsar seems to have defined a distinct set of inhabitants in Gaul: “Gallica is omnis divisa in partes tres; quarum unam incolunt Belgæ; alium Aquitani; tertiam, qui ipsorum lingua Celtæ, nostra Galli, appellantur. Hi omnes linguæ, institutis, legibus inter se differunt.” This division of Gaul agrees with most of the other antient writers; and we find the Celts are discriminated from the Belgæ, whom Cæsar has declared to have been the inhabitants of Britain on his arrival. But he has taken care to distinguish the old inhabitants from the Belgæ, whom he expressly brings from the continent, and seems to place on the sea coast. The inland people he has described as Galactophagi, and as distinct from the dwellers on the sea coast, whom he pronounces as civilized, as the Gauls. Whom of the Gauls did he mean? the Belgæ or the Aquitani? Did he mean the Celtic savages?—“pellibusque sunt vestiti.” These then, we are to understand, were the old inhabitants; they were clothed with skin, and lived on milk and flesh; a pastoral people like the old Scythians. The people who attacked Cæsar were the Belgæ, who were in possession of the south-east of Britain; and being thus in possession, and deemed inhabitants, had consequently the appellation of Britons, in common with the first possessors. The Belgæ, we are therefore to consider, as the nation who vanquished the old inhabitants.’

Mr.

Mr. Douglas proceeds to give his opinion, that the Celtic Britons buried their dead without burning, while the Belgæ gave their dead to the fire; and the large isolated barrows, on waste lands, contain urns and burnt bones. The smaller barrows contain skeletons. But, as our author's Preface commences with obscure and incorrect language, so his work closes with two paragraphs of confused language and ideas; and he boldly pronounces in one sentence, what would occupy years of a man of learning to discuss. After allowing, in preceding parts, that the Scythians were a distinct race from the Celts, he now argues 'to demonstration,' as he says, that the Celts were a branch of the Scythians, and that the Celtic mythology was Scythic. All this surprising discovery, *to demonstration*, is founded on a bull used by the Cimbri to swear upon; and as the Cimbri were Celts, and the bull an object of Scythic worship, (as our author says), the worship of both nations was the same. In the first place, it would be very difficult to shew that the bull was an object of Scythian adoration. In the next, the Romans used to swear upon hogs, and yet did not adore hogs. Yet, says our author, with considerable gravity, 'This is evidently the bull of the very old Scythic worship, and probably the clue which unravels the history of the Celts.' Whether the bull be a clue, or the clue be a bull, we cannot decide; but we are convinced, from our author's mode of ratiocination, that neither he, nor his visionary predecessor d'Hancarville, will ever unravel one thread of genuine history, so as to satisfy an accurate reasoner.

Had Mr. Douglas confined himself to a description of the sepulchral reliques, and not have ventured upon unstudied themes, he would have done well. His work, however, with all its faults, is of considerable curiosity and value.

Love's Victims: the Hermit's Story. By the Author of The Prize, No Song no Supper, &c. 4to. 2s. 6d. Cadell. 1793.

THIS story is taken from the interesting tale of *Manon l'Escaut*, in *Memoires d'un Homme de Qualité*. It may be called a pendant to Prior's *Henry and Emma*, since the lover shows an attachment to his mistress, which it is not in the power of any circumstances of fortune, nor even of her repeated infidelities, to dissolve. After several elopements, he meets with her amidst a number of convicts sentenced to America. He immediately resolves to accompany her thither, and accordingly takes his passage in the transport, and procures himself on their arrival, to be sold to the same master. This

uncommon tenderness at length fixes the wandering affections of the lady, and the lovers would have been happy even in exile, had not their returning tranquillity been disturbed by the governor's son, whom the lover has the misfortune to kill in defence of his mistress. This obliges them to fly into the uncultivated country, where she perishes in his arms, from thirst and fever.

Such is the outline of the story: we think the author has injudiciously varied from *Prevost* in some circumstances.

Manon l'Escant is represented as never having been well principled, and her infidelities are the consequence of pecuniary distresses; and the temptations of vanity. In this poem, the lady is not seduced by her lover without difficulty, and yet her subsequent infidelities are represented as proceeding from mere levity and wantonness; a degree of depravity hardly conceivable. Indeed, though the versification of this poem is easy and flowing, and the story not ill told, it by no means raises the sentiments which are produced by the original novel. That delirium of passionate tenderness and abandonment of self, which could induce a lover to preserve his affection through guilt and infamy, as well as every vicissitude of fortune, requires to be painted by the most glowing pencil, or our feelings cannot go along with the story. Rousseau must delineate an *Heloise*, and *Prevost* a *des Grieux*.—We shall give no unfavourable specimen of the Poem, by quoting the following lines:

‘ Then forth my doubtful course I took,
Attentive bent to hear,

If, ‘mid the gloom, or murm’ring brook
Or bubbling spring were near.

While swift I trod, the yielding soil
My passing feet bedew’d;

O’erjoy’d, I bless’d the prosp’rous toil,
That ev’ry hope renew’d:

Eager I stoop’d, with anxious care,
Each scanty drop to drain;

Then flew, the gather’d prize to bear,
And sooth my Emma’s pain.

Perplex’d, I trace with fearful choice
The scarce remember’d ground;

Aloud I call—my Emma’s voice
Returns a grateful sound.

As joys the mother o’er her child,
If found, where chance he strays,
While yet her bosom heaving wild
The past alarm betrays;

So gladden'd, I that sound pursue ;
Again I call more nigh—
Her languid accents scarce renew
The feebly form'd reply !

With panting speed more swift I fly,
And trembling o'er her bend ;
“ My Emma, taste ! thou shalt not die ;
“ Heav'n deigns this aid to send.”

Her lifted arms my bosom press'd,
And folding, strove to close ;
But sunk unconscious from my breast,
And death's chill damps arose.

“ Emma !” I cried, “ most lov'd ! most dear !
Thou all that I adore !”—
No sound responsive met my ear—
The conflict was no more.’

Practical Observations on the Operation for the Stone. By James Earle, Esq. 8vo. 4s. Boards. Johnson. 1793.

NUMEROUS have been the practitioners who by their remarks have endeavoured to throw some light on the operation of lithotomy, and from so able a person as Mr. Earle, the public have a right to expect something of importance. In the work before us, he evinces much of the cautious and attentive surgeon. It may possibly be thought he has entered into some parts of the subject too minutely, but we apprehend he has laid down few cautions, that are not indispensibly necessary.

‘ The subsequent observations, says the author, wholly originated and were written in consequence of a passage inserted by the late ingenious doctor Austin, in his Treatise on Human Calculi, which had, in the judgment of many professional men, a tendency to create too much alarm in the minds of persons afflicted with a painful disease, and to depress their hopes of relief, by representing the only known means of curing it in an unfavourable light. An endeavour to soften such an impression, so far as a real statement of facts could produce that effect, appeared to me a duty to society. The papers were at the press when the melancholy event of the doctor's death took place. I now, therefore, feel peculiar satisfaction in having shewn them to him in manuscript, and that they received the sanction of his approbation. Indeed it was his design, as he assured me, had he printed another edition of his work, to alter the expressions to which I have alluded. Such occasion

occasion not having been furnished, the observations which I have advanced in the following treatise, appear to be more necessary, since the assertions on which it was designed to comment, cannot be retracted by the authority from which they came, but must continue unrepealed to produce their influence, as unfortunately their author is no more.'

We here find an account of the life of this much regretted physician, which those who knew him, we have no doubt, will think an impartial one, although some may be disposed to think it rather puerile to have recorded, that he died 'on the day and at the very hour, when the unfortunate Louis XVI. was conducted to the scaffold.'

On the formation of calculi, our author seems rather to incline to the ancient opinion, on which, however, but little is advanced. He is next led to consider, what is of much greater consequence, how far certain symptoms are to be depended on, in ascertaining the presence of calculus in the bladder. He is of opinion that they are all equivocal, nor does he even except the sudden stop of the urine when in a full stream; a circumstance, which he remarks, may, and sometimes does arise, from a tumour in the bladder. On the operation of founding, many minutiae are noticed, which cannot fail to be of use, at least, to the more inexperienced practitioner. We shall submit a part of it to the reader's consideration.

'The instrument, being well oiled, may be introduced in men with the handle toward the belly, in which case it is only necessary to pursue the course of the urethra with the point of it. The usual and most convenient way is to introduce it with the handle toward the knees, till it reaches the part of the urethra where it begins to make a curve in order to pass under the ossa pubis; the handle is then to be gently turned and to be brought up to the center of the abdomen, care being taken not to lose any ground with the point. The best method to make the instrument pass, is to take care that the hand which has the instrument, and that which holds the penis, act in concert, the left hand stretching the urethra, and rather drawing that over the instrument, than forcing on the instrument itself; by these means it will usually pass with ease till it arrives in the membranous part of the urethra, and near to the neck of the bladder. At this part, from the pressure of the prostate gland, which is often enlarged by inflammation, caused by irritation from the stone; or possibly sometimes by the instrument carrying the membrane which lines the urethra before it, and behind the prostate, the completion of its introduction into the bladder is obstructed. When such a hindrance or impediment occurs, it requires great delicacy and management.

If

If the instrument be pressed on, it is very liable, particularly in a young subject, to make its way through the membranous part of the urethra, which is the thinnest and weakest part of the canal; and thus a false route may be established—a circumstance very injurious in itself, and likely to lead to the most dangerous consequences in case of a subsequent operation for the stone; as the staff would most probably enter the new made passage, and the gorget necessarily following the direction of the staff would not be conducted into the bladder.

A case is next mentioned, in which this accident took place, and had nearly been attended with fatal consequences. Concerning the means to be made use of, subsequent to the introduction of the staff, with a view to obviate deception in our search after the stone, we refer to the work itself, which contains very full and important information.

After having considered the objections which may occur to render the operation inexpedient, Mr. Earle proceeds to treat of the operation itself, which he describes with every necessary degree of minuteness. His remarks on the introduction of the gorget, are well worthy of a place here. Having described the operation to that period, when the introduction of the gorget becomes necessary, he says,

‘ When the groove of the staff is felt satisfactorily and sufficiently bare, the beak of the gorget should be introduced, being directed into it by the same index, and too great care cannot be taken to ascertain that it is there safely lodged.

‘ Much difficulty has sometimes arisen from the beak being put into the sulcus too high, that is, too near the scrotum, so as to press against the os pubis; and people, particularly young operators, being liable to be hurried when any thing intervenes in an operation contrary to their expectation, are apt to press with violence, and the gorget slipping off the staff, has sometimes been pushed on so as to pass between the bladder and rectum.

‘ Another embarrassment which the operator sometimes meets with, is from the stone being so engaged in the neck of the bladder as not to suffer the staff to pass in fairly, so as to guide the gorget into the bladder, and sometimes this is not discovered till the gorget is going to be introduced and is stopped at its entrance. In this case the best instructions I can give are, to be steadily attentive to maintain the beak in the sulcus, and to press both staff and gorget gently on, into the bladder, by which, if the stone does not adhere to the parts which surround it, it will probably be carried before them into that cavity. Among the various cases which come under our care, we must expect now and then to meet with unforeseen difficulties; however, no such occurring, the beak of the gorget being fixed in the staff, at about the most convex part

of its curve, should be kept pressed against it with the right hand, as the left must now be employed in taking the handle of the staff from the assistant and holding it, by which means the resistance and pressure of one hand against the other is felt. The gorget is now to be pressed gently on, till it arrives at the lower part of the convexity of the staff, when the operator, well knowing and recollecting the sweep and curve of it, will lower the handle of the gorget, and thus with certainty, keeping the beak in the channel, will pursue the direction of the staff into the bladder. If it contain urine, it will immediately gush out on the introduction of the gorget; but though the opposite side of the bladder is certainly less liable to come into contact with the gorget in the full, than the empty state, the operator should be aware that when the water is at once let out by the wound, the bladder not having time to contract itself gradually, will fall into large wrinkles or folds, which may be liable to be laid hold of with the stone.'

These remarks are followed by some judicious observations on the instrument, and an account of a gorget and staff, invented by Mr. Blicke, which are thus described :

' The groove of the staff is left open as usual at the convex part which projects in perinæo, and where it is usually cut upon, after which it is narrowed, and continues so almost to the end, when it again grows wider and opens. The beak of the gorget is made with a little button or fullness at top, which readily enters the wide part of the groove; but is too large to slip out in the whole course of it, which is contracted, and consequently it is confined, and cannot quit the route which must be right, till it arrives at near the end of the staff, and then it must be where it ought to be, in the bladder.'

On the mode of extracting the stone, several practical remarks are added, though, perhaps, but few that have not been noticed by others. One or two cases of encysted calculi are related, and one exceedingly remarkable, on account of the situation of the stone, which was fixed exactly at the entrance into the bladder, and extended more than an inch into the urethra; notwithstanding which, it was safely extracted by Mr. Abernethy.

The after treatment, in cases of lithotomy, Mr. Earle thinks, may be improved by a more particular care in keeping together the lips of the wound, so as to encourage their union. Of the methods of relieving the untoward symptoms which sometimes succeed, he recommends,

' Oily purgatives, anodyne and antimonial draughts, emollient and anodyne clysters, fomentations, and cataplasms applied to the abdomen; but, above all, that universal relaxation, which can only be procured from the warm bath, should not be neglected.'

Our author concludes by stating how far to his own knowledge the operation of lithotomy has been successful. It appears, that out of more than forty-seven, one only died, and the fatal event in that, we do not think justly to be attributed to the operation. On the whole, we cannot but consider this work exceedingly well calculated to answer the end for which it was professedly written, namely, to counteract the opinion of Dr. Austin, that, 'in the present state of medicine, those who suffer this species of disorder, must either bear it for life, or submit to an operation which few surgeons ever acquire the art of performing dexterously, and which, performed even by the most skilful, is by far the most dangerous of any that is practised in surgery.'

How to Grow Rich: a Comedy. By Frederick Reynolds. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Longman. 1793.

ONE of the ways of growing rich, we presume, is writing plays; and, as in one sense, every thing is good which attains its end, this comedy, which has had, we believe, the usual run upon the stage, may be said to do its author that credit which success bestows; but it will hardly maintain a place in the closet, where the attention flags unless supported by real wit and character. The author, however, deserves commendation, in aiming his satire against some of the prevailing vices of the times; gaming, and ruinous *speculations* of all kinds, so hostile to the true spirit of fair commercial industry. The country banks come in for a share of the ridicule in the following scene:

* *Smalltrade.* (*coming forward.*) "Smalltrade debtor to fir Harry Hockley two thousand pounds in specie—Creditor two hundred in paper."—Ah! that's very well! I don't know how it is—My little nice bank is not the thing it was—People of real property have become country bankers now, and play'd the devil with us petty, dashing traders. (*Knocking at door*) Plainly, see who's there.

* *Plainly.* Give me leave, fir. (*Taking ledger, &c.*) *Exit.*

* *Smalltrade.* There's nothing like a snug country bank—ready money received—paper notes paid—and though I make fifteen per cent. and pay their drafts in my own bills, what of that? A five guinea note is so convenient for carriage or posting—lays so close in a letter, or slips so neatly in the sleeve of a coat—Oh! its of great use to the country, and a vast benefit to myself.

Re-enter Plainly, follow'd by a servant.

* *Serv.* Is this your country bank, as you call it?

G g 2

* *Plainly.* It

* Plainly. It is.

* Serv. I want change for this draft of fir Harry Hockley's.

* Plainly. Very well—How much is it for?

* Serv. A hundred pounds.

* Smalltrade. What?

* Serv. A hundred pounds.

* Smalltrade. Mercy on me! You've set me all in a tremble! Draw on a country bank for a hundred pounds—Why, does your master suppose himself drawing on the bank of Amsterdam?

* Plainly. True, fir; and if you recollect, we had a large run upon us yesterday.

* Smalltrade. So we had—a very large run! Sir Thomas Roundhead drew in one draft for the enormous sum of twenty-five pounds; and here's your master draws for a hundred—Talk of a country bank! The bank of England cou'dn't stand this.

* Serv. I can't tell, fir—Sir Harry said he had ten times the money in your hands.

* Smalltrade. So he has, and what then? Doesn't he place money in my hands that it may be safe? and if he is to draw it out in large sums, that is, if he is to get it when he wants it, where wou'd be the use of a banker? Plainly, pay the draft in my own notes; and d'ye mind, let them be all at thirty and forty days sight—Young man, go with my clerk.

[Exeunt Plainly and servant.]

We were not sorry to see in the Epilogue, a stroke at a mode of drefs lately introduced, which tends to confound the virgin with the matron. A fashion which equally violates good sense and modesty, cannot be treated with too caustic a ridicule.

Silva Critica: five in Auctores Sacros Profanosque Commentarius Philologus: concinnavit Gilbertus Wakefield, A. B. Pars Tertia. 8vo. 3s. 6d. Deighton. 1792.

WHATEVER may be the general opinion of Mr. Wakefield as an orthodox divine, we presume there is but one judgment of him as a sound scholar. The many proofs he has given of his learning, and especially in the two former parts of this work, will, we doubt not, induce our readers to enter with pleasure on the third. It will not, indeed, be found that every impediment has been lopped away by our Critical Woodman; but it cannot be denied that he has opened a variety of paths, which, whilst they conduct to the objects more immediately in view, let in also catches of the country beyond. Instances of these we proceed to remark.

* SECT. CXXVI. 1 Cor. iii. 15.

* ΑΥΤΟΣ ΔΕ ΟΙΚΟΔΟΜΕΙΤΑΙ, ὅΤΙΣ ΔΕ ὡς ΔΙΑ ΤΥΓΟΥΣ.

* Sic

* Sic *Aristophanes* nequissimus in fabulâ nequissimâ, *Lys.* v. 133.

ΚΑΛΟΝΙΚΗ.

ΑΛΛ', ἀλλ', ὁ τί βεβαι· καὶν ΕΜΕ ΧΕῖΡ, ΔΙΑ ΤΟΥ ΠΥΡΟΣ
ΕΘΕΛΩ βαδίζειν.

ΔΥΣΙΣΤΡΑΘ.

Τί δαι σὺ;

ΜΥΡΡΙΝΗ.

Καὶ γὰρ βυλομαι ΔΙΑ ΤΟΥ ΠΥΡΟΣ.

Ità sunt personarum partes ordinandæ: atque ità etiàm rescribimus: nam dudum nos suspicio incessit, quam confirmat uniuscujusque diei experientia, *Atticos* scriptores VIX UNQUAM, ELIDERE εγω, εμε, εμοι, εμε, εμος, nisi præcedens vox cum vocali vel diphthongo exeat: quam suspicionem cum erudito orbe jam nunc communicatam volumus, ut se gnavitè exerceant critici in reformandis scriptorum locis penè infinitis, non aliam ob causam depravatis.

* Proverbium, quo hic loci usus est *Apostolus*, protulit etiàm *Euripides* ad *Androm.* 488. et *Elect.* 1191. nec non *Homerus*, *Il.* K. 246.

* Τὸ τὸ δ' ἰσπομενοιο, καὶ ΕΚ ΠΥΡΟΣ αἰθομενοιο
ἀμφὼ νοησάμεν.

sibi secum cogitet lector, an non ità sit supplendus *Scholiastes*: *Αἰθομενοιο, ἀντί τῃ Αἰθοντος, ὁ ἐστὶ, καίοντος· ἐν τῇ φανερῇ ΚΙΝΔΥΝΟΥ.*

* Quidam interpretes, et inter eos *Lovthius* (qui sublimi prophetæ feliciorē operam navâset, si ad munus susceptum accessisset *orientalibus* literis instructor, sine quibus in textu constituendo nihil agit interpret *Hebraicus* nisi ludibrium et sibi et lectoribus) huc referunt *Isaiæ* x. 18. Mallem equidē, cum mutatione scripturæ *Hebraicæ* prorsus contemnendâ quam fatebuntur et facile deprehendent periti, *vulgatâ*, quod aiunt, versione partim astipulante, legere:

* Atque erit ut FUGITIVUS LIQUEFACTUS:

timore scilicet, sed hoc in transitu tantummodò tangimus, et aliis animum intenti: de quo decernant docti cordatique: nos enim necessariò istis studiis longum vale diximus.

* Utcunque hæc sint, hinc saltē videtur commodè explicandus *Pausanias*, quem editorem judicaverim non intellexisse, in *Achaicis* sect. xxiii. ed. *Kubnii*.

* Εἰλεῖθυσια δὲ εἰκασταί τις αὖ εἶναι δαδάς, ὅτι γυναιξὶν ἐν ἰσῷ καὶ ΠΥΡΙ εἰσὶν αἱ ὠδίνες.

* Ità, nî fallor, rescribi debet locus; vel saltē, nec non propè ad receptam scripturam, ἐν ἰσῷ καὶ πυρὶ ΕΣΤΙ ΚΑΙ ὠδίνες. Vult *Pausanias* dolores puerperii facibus ardentibus significari ob *extremum discrimen*, in quod mulieres indè adducuntur. Sed hic etiàm nolumus esse nimis pertinaces.

‘Haud aliter *Theocritus*, ii. 131. proverbio usus est.

‘Και, μετα ταν Κυπριον, τυ με δευτερα ΕΚ ΠΥΡΟΣ ειλεν.

‘Quæ *D. Judas* habet in *epistolæ* v. 23. ad nos attinent: Ουκ δε εν φοβω σωζεται, ΕΚ ΤΟΥ ΠΥΡΟΣ ἀρπαζοντες: i. e. “trepidè atque festinanter, utpote periclitantes ipsi, dum eos à periculo eripitis.”

In the opinion here expressed of bishop Lowth, truth compels us to concur: for, greatly as we admire both his *Prelections* and *Preliminary Discourse* to *Isaiah*, we must reluctantly admit that his notes upon the prophet discover but little of that learning which is essential to investigate the sense of the original; nor of the translation itself can we say,

Viruntque commissi calores.

‘*Ibid.* v. 52.

‘Εν ῥιπῇ οφθαλμοι.

‘Nobis non satis accuratam locutionis hujusce notionem in animo concipere videntur, qui *de oculi nictu* capiunt. Quidam in se continet subtilius venustiusque; quod perstringimus ad *Virg. Georg.* iii. 219. ubi quæ diximus nostram mentem satis explicatam dabunt. Igitur, ne actum agere videamur, illuc se conferat, si velit, lector: nos ulterius rem prosequemur; quum ex hoc fonte uberes quædam elegantiarum scaturigines per *Silvam Criticam* opportunè dispensari possunt.

‘Primum sese offert corrigendum *Claudianus*, in *Ruf.* ii. 410.

‘Mox omnes fodiunt hastis, artusque trementes

Dilamiant: uno tot corpore pila tepeſcunt;

Et non infecto pudit mucrone reverti.

Hi vultus RABIDOS et adhuc VIBRANTIA vellunt

LUMINA; truncatos alii rapuere lacertos.

Ita *Valerius Flaccus*, ii. 342.

‘————— *Tyrus* VIBRAT torus igneus ostro.

iterumque iii. 141.

‘CINGULA sublustri VIBRANTIA detrahit umbrâ:

quem haud raro respicit *Claudianus*.

‘Et amplector plurium codicum lectionem; quam illustrabit *Sallustius*, *Catil.* sub finem, ubi omninò videndus est eruditissimus *Wassius*. *Catilina* verò, longè à suis, inter hostium cadavera, reperi- tus est; paullulùm etiàm SPIRANS, FEROCIAMQUE animi, quam ha- buerat, VIVUS in VULTU RETINENS.

‘Et secum cogitet lector sagax, an hæc distinctione dijudicari poterint, quæ de hoc loco satis magnæ moventur lites.’

We prefer, however, the ordinary mode of pointing this passage of *Sallust* to that which is here given; conceiving it necessary to determine the sense:—*quam habuerat vivus*, in vultu

vultu retinens. The *vivus* appears to us to refer to the last impulse of ferocity that stained the features of Catiline, when each corporeal agent was bent to its utmost exertion: postquam fufas copias, feque cum paucis relictum videt Catilina, memor generis atque pristinæ dignitatis fuæ, in confertiffimos hostes incurrit, ibique pugnans confoditur.

SECT. CLV. D. Jac. i. 25.

Ο δε παρακνύας εις νομον τελειον τον της ελευθεριας.

Vos *παρ κνπτω* hic loci vult, ut sæpiùs in versione LXX. *vi-rali, attentius et curiosius*, inclinato corpore et oculis propiùs ad-motis, *inspicere*: et ità plus semèl in *Novo Fœdere*, de quibus in-dices aliquem certiozem facient. Nobis exscribere singula non li-bet, non vacat.

Ali èr, alii sæpè, et *Demosthenes*, ut videtur, in Phil. i. p. 34. *Και ΠΑΡ ΚΥΨΑΝ Α ΤΟ ΕΠΙ της πολέως πολεμον, προς Αγαθαζον και παντων ο μαλλον οίχεται πλεοντα.*

Ità, quantum discernere valeo, commodiùs legetur iste locus: sed nescio equidè an necesse sit in hoc exemplo alitèr accipere vocem de quâ disputatur. An non possis—CAUTE OBSERVAN-TES *bellum contra civitatem*? Cui notioni favent plura loca co-mici, quæ adiri possunt illis pleniùs rem tenere cupientibus: ut etiàm *Æsopi* fab. 76. ed. Oxon. 1698. et *Lucianos* haud rarò.

Locus Philonis occurrit nobis, p. 914. nulli verborum mag-nificent à secundi, dignissimus in hoc sodalitium admitti.

Τη δε τις υειν θεω και δια παντος τη βιω ΧΩΡΕΙΝ και οραν αει το ον, τι αν ωφελιμωτερον η σημνότερον επινοησειε τις; Επαυγασομεθα δ' αυτων εκασον ακριβεστερον, μη τοις ονοματι παραχθεντες, αλλα ΔΙΑΚΤΥΑΝΤΕΣ εισω, και ταις δι νοιαις εμβραθυναντες.

Hæc emendatio, haudquaquàm ignobilis, si verè, nec κατὰ προσκλησιν, in meo negotio judicare valeam, integram servat con-structionem, et auctoris scopo apprimè consulit: IN ANIMO CON-CIPERE et intueri. De hoc verbi *χωρειν* usu, præter solitum recon-dito venustoque, nos in Sect. lxxvi. videndi sumus.

These observations are followed by emendations of Philo and Dio Cassius, which are striking vouchers of Mr. Wakefield's perspicuity.

SECT. CLVI. C. iii. v. 5.

Η γλωσσα μικρον μελις εστι, και μεγαλαυχει. Ιδω, ολιγον πυρ ηλικην ὕλην αναπτει;

Locus extat apud *Apollonium Rhodium*, iii. 288. omni poetico artificio elaboratus, quem in memoriam suscitât *Apostoli* compara-tio: sic rescribendus, cum postremus et longo intervallo optimus editor omnes errores non indè sustulisse videatur.

_____ αυτια δ' αιει
Βαλλεν επ' Αισονιδην αμαρυγματα, και ει αυτα

ΕΚ ΣΤΗΘΕΩΝ, πυκινὰι καμάτων, φρενές· ἔδε τιν' ἄλλη
 Μνήσιν εἴχει, γλυκίῃ δὲ ΚΑΤΕΙΧΕΤΟ θυμὸν ἀνιή·
 Ὡς δὲ γυνὴ μαλὲρ' ὡς περὶ καρφίᾳ χεύατο δαλῶ
 Χερσὶν, τήπερ ταλασσίᾳ ἐργὰ μεμνην,
 Ὡς κεν ὑπὸ ροφίῳ εὐκτῶρ σέλας ἐντυναίτο,
 Ἐγγὺ μάλ' ἐγγόμεν' το δ' ΑΘΕΣΦΑΤΟΝ ἐξ ΟΛΙΓΟΙΟ
 Δαλὲ ἀνερχόμενον ΠΥΡ καρφίᾳ παντ' ἀμαθύνει·
 Τοιοῦς ὑποκράδην—κ.τ.λ.

Alias rectè dixisse—κατείχεται θυμὸς—quis negaverit? Sed certè non adhuc erit huic locus; de initiis enim morbi amatorii poeta loquitur. De hac autèm, et alterà etiàm conjecturà, quæ facit *apostolicæ* planè gemellam, iudicium suum lectori integrum relinquimus.

Gravissimus, si quid video, solæcismus deformat *Aristophanem* in *Pluto*, vers. 1054. Nollem tamèn esse confidens nimis, cum non sit auctor, quem volentes legimus, sed planè, ut necessarium malum, cum tædio eluctamur.

Ἐὰν γὰρ αὐτὴν εἰς μόνος σπινθήρ λαβῇ
 Ὡς περ παλαιὰν εἰρεσιωτὴν καυσεται.

Anne ferri potest καυσεται in *aditivo sensu*? Nullus credo: non enim tuebitur locutionem Il. I. 88. et similia. Ibi reddendum—*πυρ κηαντο*—SIBI ignem accenderunt. Porro, vox λαβῇ nec elegans æquè nec usitata, ac altera, quæ passim cum hac confunditur, et de igne et sole per singulas paginas *Græcarum* chartarum invenitur frequentata. Quid multa? Sic rescribimus comici versiculos, et ad ingenia verè *Attica* provocamus.

Ἐὰν γὰρ αὐτὴν εἰς μόνος ΣΠΙΝΘΗΡ ΒΑΛΗ,
 Ὡς περ ΠΑΛΑΙΑ Γ' ΕΙΡΕΣΙΩΝΗ καυσεται.

Porro, *Euripides* cum scriptore sacro committi debet, quum ἔησιν habeat persimilem, et elegantèr admodum expressam: *Androm.* v. 643.

Σμικρὰς ἀπ' ἀρχῆς νίκας ἀνθρώποις μεγά
 Γλῶσσ' ἐκπορίζει τὸ το δ' εἰς σοφοὺς βροτῶν
 Ἐξ ὑλαθῆνται, μὴ φίλοις τευχέειν εἶν.

Huc etiàm pertinet venustum *Pindaricæ* Musæ carmen, de quo *πικρὸν* quædam effutit *Scholias*; immemor fanè, quotiès optimi poetæ, et *Thebanus* noster imprimis, ipsam rem cum similitudine solent commiscere: *Pyth.* iii. 62.

Δαίμων δ' ἑτέρος
 Ἐς κακὸν τρεψαίς, ἰδαμά-
 σατο νῦν καὶ γειτονῶν
 Πολλοὶ ἱππαυρόν, ἅμα
 Δ' ἐφθαρεί· ΠΟΛΛΑΝ τ' ὅρει ΠΥΡ ἐξ ΕΝΟΣ
 Σπέρματος ἐνδορὸν αἵσιν ΤΑΝ.

Nec incommodè redderes ad normam loci, quem illustramus, *copiosam materiem*. Et vehementèr lætor *Hérynium* perspexisse rationes

rationes vocis ἐφθάρην, quæ turpiter sefellerat editores, scriptoris scopo usque ad ravim frustrâ reclamante.

‘ Jam verò videamus, an possimus in tuto collocare *Inûs Euripideæ* locum apud *Stobæum*, de quo, *Scaligero* præeunte, seriam difficultatem obmovet vir egregius harum subtilitatum artifex et reconditæ eruditionis, *Valckenaerus* ad *Ammon.* p. 139. et dubitationem omnem tollere de medio.

* Ἰσὼ δὲ μηδεὶς ταυτ' ἀσινγασθαι χρεών·
ΜΙΚΡΟΝ γὰρ ἐκ λαμπτήρος Ἰδαίου λεπταῖς
ΠΡΗΣΕΙ' ἈΝ ἈΝΘΟΣ.

Causa corruptelæ manifestissimè apparet: v. *Silv. Crit.* i. p. 90. ad imum.

‘ Porro, dum in hoc sumus, quid vetat *Δωμην* longè suavissimam in eodem *hymno* emendatiorem linquere? Sensem quidèṃ optimum, eumque genuinum, nobis interpretes extuderunt; securi interea locutionum, quæ res sibi ignotas malè coguntur enunciare: vers. 36.

Ἐστὶ δὲ φύλον ἐν αἰ-
δρωποισι ματαιοτάτον,
Ὅστις, ἈΣΧΑΛΛΩΝ ἐπιχω-
ρία, παπταίνει τὰ πορσῶ,
Μεταμῶνια δὲ
ρεῦων ἀκραντοῖς ἐλπίσιν.

‘ Denique, nobis videtur *Hesychius*, in voce Ὑλη, mancus esse sub finem glossæ, atque ità supplendus: Ὑλη·—ἡ συμφυτοῦ τοποῦ· Ἡ ΠΑΝ, ἐξ ἧς ἀποτελεῖται Τὸ ἱερὸν. Conferas *Suidam* in eadem voce. Id est, *omnis* cujuscunque demùm operis *materies*.’

Of a work so multifarious it is difficult to give such specimens as will at once do justice to the author and the public. In respect to both we wish to be impartial. A fourth part of the *Silva* is published, and shall soon be considered.

Letters and Essays, Moral and Miscellaneous. By *Mary Hays.*
8vo. 5s. Boards. Knott. 1793.

THIS lady is a disciple of the Priestleian school, and seems well acquainted with the present state of the arguments in controversial divinity and metaphysics. Her religion however, is of a liberal and philanthropic complexion, and her morality pure and free from affectation. She is likewise a disciple and professed admirer of the ingenious defender of the rights of women, and strongly exhorts her country-women, in pursuance of those rights, to the assiduous cultivation of their understandings. So far we cheerfully go along with her; but when she throws out a sort of a sneer against notable women, and even mentions with disrespect *Mrs. Glasse's Art of Cookery*, we confess

feels ourselves touched in a tender point; for though women, who are more like angels, may be above these low gratifications, men are not; and we freely acknowledge that the delicacies with which our good ladies have occasionally regaled us, have given us a great respect for the said Mrs. Glasse, and as, unfortunately, we are not possessed of the skill to make ourselves the various good things she treats of, we do hereby enter our protest against her treatise being left out of the library of any female, be she Unitarian, Trinitarian, Arian, or supra lapsarian—To be serious, we do *not* think that a neglect of literary cultivation is a prevailing fault in the present mode of educating young women, and we might alledge as a proof of it, the frequent occasions on which it becomes our duty to mention their names with honour. That there are ignorant women is very certain; but there are ignorant men too, and those men must have suitable companions.

This work consists partly of moral stories, and partly of essays, with a few poems. The tendency of the whole is in favour of virtue; and if the style is not brilliant, neither is it defective. The author seems aware that the different topics which are brought together, some of them of a very abstruse nature, render the work too miscellaneous; the variety, however, may engage some to read on subjects which they would not have looked for in other books. Of the stories, we were best pleased with N^o 8. because it is calculated to repress the indulgence of too great a sensibility, though on the most justifiable occasions; a fault not often checked by those who address the fancy, but as it is too long to quote, we shall give the author's sentiments on the doctrine of final and universal salvation, a doctrine so cheering to the heart of man, and so honourable to his Creator, that we cannot but hope it will in time take place, as it is certainly gaining ground of the gloomy and heart-withering terrors of Calvinism.

It has been objected, that the doctrine of final restitution is contrary to the express declarations of scripture, and that could it be demonstrated, it might have a tendency to relax the morals, by mitigating the fear of an eternal duration of future punishment. In reply to the first objection,—I grant that many particular passages in the New Testament, speak of the misery of the wicked in a future state, as endless and unlimited. But at the same time, the general tendency of the scriptures militate against this idea, by representing the Deity as a kind Parent, willing that all should come to repentance, and having no pleasure in the death of a sinner, inflicting punishment only with a view to correct and amend. It may also be observed, that the language of scripture is always plain and popular, adapted not merely to the dis-

discerning few, but to the understandings of the bulk of mankind; nor could it have been so generally useful, had not this been the case. It may speak of future punishment in an unlimited and unconditional manner, in order to produce a stronger effect; as God by Jonah threatened the destruction of the people of Nineveh, without giving them room to hope that their repentance might avert the impending judgment. It is also thought by commentators,—that the words translated everlasting and eternal, are not always to be understood as strictly meaning infinite, or without end; though certainly intended to convey an idea of a duration so long, as to appear to us inconceivable, and almost indefinite. Many detached passages of scripture when taken abstractedly, seem to contradict each other; which is unavoidable from the necessity of its being written in a style appealing to the senses, the only style which could have been generally understood: for instance—the Supreme Being is sometimes represented with the passions and parts of a man, as being angry, grieved, appeased, repenting, &c. as having hands, arms, eyes, and ears; at others—as a spirit, whose thoughts are not as our thoughts, nor his ways as our ways. Reason is to judge, and reconcile these apparent contrarieties. The safest, and properest method of forming just opinions on these subjects, is to lay little comparative stress on mere words, often symbolical, and highly figurative or accommodated to local circumstances; but to rise into ideas that harmonize best with the general tenure of revelation, and are analogous to nature and right reason. And these teach us (as I before observed) that a being of infinite power and boundless benevolence could not have created intelligent creatures, without intending their ultimate benefit; and though, on account of their limited capacities in this first stage of their existence, they are liable to much evil and woe, yet these very sufferings may have a rectifying tendency, and may be links in a chain of causes and effects, that will eventually terminate in the highest felicity; and this arises out of our frame and nature, and could not have been otherwise, unless God had at once formed us perfect, that is to say, had multiplied himself.

Wallis's Art of preventing Diseases and restoring Health.
(Concluded from Vol. VII. p. 419.)

IN a former critique we gave an account of the principles upon which Dr. Wallis founded the work before us. We shall now proceed to examine the superstructure, as minutely as the nature of our plan will permit. The doctor thinks, that in order to prevent, mitigate, or cure disease, particular attention should be paid to the constitution, as it is by regulating that, every good is to be derived. He, therefore, commences
by

By shewing what is meant by that term. After enumerating no less than eighteen different species, he says,

‘ But before any benefit can accrue in the application of remedies, or the manner pointed out by which mischief may be avoided from the same source, we should be acquainted with the corporeal construction and nature of their powers, which constitutes most of these deviations; and it is for want of this knowledge that self-created physicians, doctors of imagination, occasion very often a multiplicity of evils to their credulous patients, and to themselves, under many morbid circumstances—prescribing boldly the same applications to constitutions diametrically opposite to each other, and which require very different materials to conquer the same complaint. For want of this knowledge, I have known coughs converted into pulmonary consumptions, and that not unfrequently; gout into apoplexy; colds, inducing slight febrile affections, into inflammatory fevers; sore throats, easily curable at first, made dangerous, and too often fatal—and many other deleterious transitions occur from the same fountain—for it is a certain fact, there is not any man that does not fancy himself, in several cases, a physician; and when, by his ignorance in advising improper remedies, he has created mischief, perhaps death, he consoles himself, and the unhappy friends, by saying, he did it for the best.

‘ To guard, therefore, against the unfortunate consequences of these *good* actions, our duty calls upon us to specify the particular nature of these constitutions, that we may hereafter, when requisite, point out properly adapted remedies, that the patients may not fail in the attempt to alleviate, or cure, or prevent particular complaints.’

We may be convinced, from daily observation, of the truth of these assertions, which appear to be well supported by the following reasoning:

‘ Now as there is certainly such a diversity of constitutions, many of them diametrically opposite to each other; and as there is also a variety of accidents and diseases which will affect the different constitutions in similar modes, how can it happen that one and the same application shall be proper to all? for it is owing to the operations of the habit that diseases are prevented—made milder, or cured; and it is to our applications, that these salutary operations are often brought about where nature is defective—and, consequently, obliged to our assistance. We must, therefore, select our remedies, and appropriate them to the particular constitutions; and let our directions be formed, with respect to diet and conduct, consistent with the same constitutional points—and more especially where our attempts are levelled at the prevention
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tion of morbid attacks—in completing of which, we are to aim at keeping the constitution in a state of health, adequate to the powers with which it was originally endowed—so that the common causes of diseases may not be enabled to produce their effects—which originate from different qualities and changes of the air—called constitutions, climate, morbid effluvia, and intemperance or indiscretion—under which last we comprehend all those actions which, in their regulations, depend upon our own power, or are deduced from necessity.

‘ Or, that such diseases, as are unavoidable, may be made to produce their influence on the machine in the most mild and gentle state—such as, small pox, measles, various fevers, and other complaints of the infectious or contagious class—or those which arise from an hereditary cause: in accomplishing which purpose, it will chiefly depend upon the proper use and application of what are called the non-naturals.’

The doctor next proceeds to speak of the non-naturals, after furnishing us with the opinion of the celebrated Hoffman on the subject, and the result of Cornaro's experience, who received such peculiar advantages from a steady adherence to, and uniform perseverance in temperance; apportioning his regimen to the nature and exigencies of his *constitution only*, that he emerged from a state of constant torment, and says,

‘ That at eighty-three I now enjoy a vigorous state of body and mind—I mount my horse from the level ground—I climb steep ascents with ease; and have lately wrote a comedy full of innocent mirth and raillery; when I return home, either from private business or the senate, I have eleven grandchildren, with whose education, amusement, and songs, I am greatly delighted; and I frequently sing with them, for my voice is clearer and stronger now, than ever it was in my youth. In short, I am in all respects happy, and quite a stranger to the doleful, morose, dying life, of lame, deaf, and blind old age—worn out with intemperance.’

It has, however, been a remark by some medical writers, that little efficacy can be expected in the prevention or cure of diseases from what we eat or drink, for the digestive powers of the constitution so alter the very nature of our food, that the juices from thence derived, becoming assimilated to those of the machine, can produce no different effect, so as to become more or less salutary. In all habits where the different digestions are in an healthful state, there may be some appearance of truth in the doctrine, as far as concerns the nature of the fluids carried into the machine. But if we consider the
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nature of the stomach, the different affections it can and does produce over the habit in general, or parts of that habit, according as different materials act upon it; if we consider that it is liable to be disordered by the quantity, as well as quality of our aliments, and that a variety of diseases depend solely upon that organ—we shall cease to neglect the rules laid down in this particular; for probably, almost all chronic complaints may be attributed originally, in a great degree, to defects of the stomach and digestive powers. Indeed, we may venture to assert, that if the rules pointed out in this part of the work were to be observed, and the nature of individual constitutions properly investigated, very great benefit would accrue to those who would make the trial. Besides, much pleasure might be acquired by the perusal, for there is nothing dogmatical or dictatorial in the rules; they appear to be supported by fair and candid reasoning, leaving every reader at liberty to judge of the propriety or impropriety of the conclusions.

We are next supplied with an Essay on Nursing, founded on the most simple principles, subservient to the laws of nature, which is divided into four heads; 1. *Cleanliness*.—2. *Cloathing*.—3. *Exercise*.—4. *Food*. The directions relative to which, are delivered in a plain and easy a style, and are intelligible to every common reader.

The doctor attributes almost all the mischiefs, and we fear with great truth, which happen to children, to bad nursing.

‘ Let us cast our eye amongst the hardy sons of the rustic race—compare those with the offspring of the more refined and polished—what a difference in appearance! Amongst the former, we find the children firm, robust, lively, healthful, active, and strong; amongst the latter, weak, puny, relaxed, and sickly. Amongst the former few die, but from the accession of unavoidable illness, as measles, small-pox, chin-cough, dentition, &c. Among the latter numberless expire from gripes, loosenesses, hectic fevers, worms, and convulsions.

‘ But there are greater evils than dissolution in this state from this cause; for from hence disease itself is generated, and so fixed in the habit, that the life of many is oftentimes one continued scene of misery;—nay, I have no doubt but, from this source, the temper and disposition acquire so fretful a cast, and oftentimes is so soured, and rendered so petulant and peevish, that, whilst they do exist, they continue unhappy and miserable in themselves, as well as troublesome and offensive to their attendants and their associates; for it has been allowed, that the faculties of the mind very often depend upon the organs of the body; for when these are in a tolerable perfect state, so as to perform their separate functions properly, the thinking part is more alert, active, and cheerful;

ful; and good-humour the consequence of such freedom—while the contrary effects are produced, when the organs are disturbed, or diseased. To avoid, then, these disagreeable effects, it is our business to lay down such regulations as are founded on rational principles, supported by experience, and which consist in bringing up children in a plain and simple manner, the mode most consonant with nature; and if we observe the method she invariably pursues, we shall find that she delights in simplicity alone. View but the brute creation, and those of the feathered race—see what occurs in them; examine what method they, in rearing their young, instinctively adopt, and mark their success; cleanliness, proper feeding, and exercise, comprehend in these the infinite wisdom of her laws—and if we add judicious cloathing, so should they that of the human species.’

The arguments our author makes use of are conclusive; we therefore would wish to recommend the perusal of them to those who have the care of infants; and shall close this part with a few general rules he has specified.

‘ That, immediately after the birth, children should be wrapped in a warm wrapper, to preserve them from cold; afterwards, in about half an hour, be well cleaned before the fire, loosely and lightly cloathed, not crammed with any dabs, but laid by the mother, and set to her breast as soon as possible.

‘ That, where the constitution will permit, all mothers should suckle their own children, at the same time not depend totally upon the breast, but occasionally use them to the boat, or spoon, in order to be prepared against the effects of indisposition, either in one or the other, should they occur.

‘ That cleanliness should ever be invariably, and constantly observed—children never have their stomachs overloaded, but be fed fully only at proper intervals, five times a day; if not, oftener, and more sparingly.

‘ That all food, besides the mother’s milk, should be of a nature as similar as possible to that milk, compounded of vegetable and animal materials, as ass’s, or artificial ass’s milk, cow’s milk mixed with thin panada, or rice used instead of bread, and weak broths occasionally.

‘ That they should be constantly exercised, agreeable to their age and strength, and such used as seems to afford them pleasure, and employs their attention; they also should be much out in the air, and be attended by clean, young, lively, and active nurses.’

The active powers of medicine, with their doses, next occupies the doctor’s attention, which he divides into the five following heads:

‘ First—Medicines which act upon the inert solids by means of the vital principle, under which will come,

1. Nutrients
2. Astringents, and
3. Emollients.

* Second—Medicines which act upon the living solids by means of the same principle.

* Here will follow

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| 1. Stimulants | 7. Emetics |
| 2. Antispasmodics | 8. Cathartics |
| 3. Sedatives | 9. Diuretics |
| 4. Errhines | 10. Diaphoretics, and |
| 5. Sialagogues | 11. Emmenagogues. |
| 6. Expectorants | |

* Third—Medicines which act upon the fluids through the system.

* To this place belong

1. Attenuants
2. Inspissants, and
3. Demulcents.

* Fourth—Medicines which manifest their sensible action only in the primæ viæ, or first passages, from the throat to the anus.

* Here succeed,

1. Antalkaline
2. Antacids, and
3. Antiseptics.

* Fifth—Medicines which produce their consequences from external application, or on substances formed within the machine, and lodged without the verge of circulation—as

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| 1. Epispastics | 3. Anthelmintics |
| 2. Blood-letting | 4. Lithontriptics. |

This part of the work, though apparently simple to such as make medicine their peculiar study, is certainly too systematical; nor can it be considered as plain enough to be readily comprehended by common readers. Though we find fault with this, we are aware of the extreme difficulty in executing this part of the plan in a more easy mode, consistent with the former and subsequent part of the work, with which it particularly coincides. However, a great deal of useful information may be from hence acquired, as we find medicines, though classed under different heads, more particularly confined to those explanatory of their principal actions, upon which, probably, most of their other actions may depend, as *opium* is considered under *sedatives*, &c. and in the Index, each is referred to the different powers they are supposed to exert. With regard to the doses of active medicine, one excellent rule is laid down, viz. to begin with small doses at first, and gradually encrease them, at proper intervals, until the strongest which the constitution can bear,

bear, be discovered. Hence the prescriber is not likely to fail by too great timidity, nor to do harm by too great rashness. And this rule is particularly necessary to be observed, as different constitutions require different doses to produce the desired effects; besides, by these means the most powerful medicine may be given with the greatest security.

The last part of this work includes diseases, with their modes of cure, in which our author insists much upon the knowledge of the proximate cause. In all cases, perhaps it will be difficult to acquire this so desirable information. Indeed, from the diversity of opinions of medical writers, it may be considered, in many cases, impracticable. However, wherever it can be found, it ought to be adverted to, as there cannot be the least doubt but that will furnish the most rational mode of cure. In perusing the works of the more antient writers, what absurdities, what incongruities, do we find concerning many complaints, for want of this knowledge? What a farrago of nonsense do we read concerning the jaundice!—But now how clear our conceptions! how easy the mode of cure in most cases? The proximate cause of this complaint being ascertained to be a partial or total obstruction of the common gall duct, called ‘ductus communis choledochus; most commonly from viscid or concreted bile; attended with a yellow colour of the white of the eyes and skin—high coloured urine, tinging linen dipt into it of a yellow colour;’ ‘the indications of cure are to remove the obstruction, which, as it may originate from different causes, will require different modes of treatment.’

There is something so clear in this, that we cannot avoid wishing, practitioners would pay particular attention to this point, which our author thinks may, in a great variety of cases, be ascertained, by adverting closely to the moving powers of the constitution *generally*, and carrying that idea to *particular parts*; determining the immediate causes of disease from the general affections of those powers; or from their defects in particular parts, as the blood from whence all our humours are derived, is arranged amongst the number.

Indeed, in the account of diseases, our author does not only attempt to divest it of all ambiguity in this point, but in every part he seems to labour to be as perspicuous as possible, in order to give his readers a thorough knowledge of the complaint of which he treats. He, therefore, does not confine himself to the proximate cause alone, but, after giving the derivation of the term, with a general description of the disease, he enumerates the remote causes, particularizes the characteristic or distinguishing signs, and closes with the mode of cure—An

C. R. N. ARR. (VIII.) August, 1793. H h expla-

explanatory, as well as general index is subjoined, wherein all the technical, and such other terms as are not commonly used, are fully explained.

Upon the whole, after perusing this work with great attention, we think ourselves warranted to pronounce, that it appears well calculated to be extremely beneficial, particularly to those who are entering on the practice of physic, or who would wish to understand the art as founded on modern principles.

Most other works which have been presented to the public, with an intent to render the practice of physic intelligible to common capacities, can be considered as little more than mere catalogues of distant causes, symptoms, and medicines, not supplying the reader with any knowledge by which he may be enabled to form the slightest judgment for himself of the propriety or impropriety of the applications; and, from the affected popularity of the style, becoming more liable to be productive of deception, than true information. One caution of our author cannot be too often inculcated, viz. 'in all our efforts to do good, *we should be certain not to do harm*;' for there are few modes of being right, and many of being dangerously wrong, of which the author of the present work seems to be truly sensible, and, therefore, has offered his reasons upon most occasions. In following him, perhaps it will give his reader now and then some trouble; still it will amply repay him, by permanently fixing his ideas, and supplying him with rational principles, which are alone calculated to render the practice of physic, in all its branches of prevention, mitigation, and cure, easy, clear, and efficacious.

An Essay upon Gardening, containing a Catalogue of exotic Plants for the Stoves and Green-Houses of the British Gardens: the best Method of planting the Hot-House Vine; with Directions for obtaining and preparing proper Earths and Compositions, to preserve tender Exotics; Observations on the History of Gardening; and a Contrast of the ancient with the modern Taste. By Richard Steele. 4to. 1l. 7s. Boards. White and Sons. 1793.

GARDENING has been constantly the amusement of our countrymen, and their passion for nature, in all her varied forms, has led them to every climate, to the most inaccessible Alps, and to the blooming savannahs of another continent. Art must consequently be exerted to imitate, as far as art can imitate, the soil and temperature proper for each; and
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it has more than once happened that mould, for a favourite or a curious plant, has been brought from the torrid zone, from the arctic regions, or almost from the antipodes. In captain Bligh's expedition, the plants were propagated in a growing state; and, as our manufactures may probably be enriched by the clay of New South Wales, so it is probable that our soil may be also meliorated by, or at least adapted by personal observation for its plants.

The present Essay is intended for the gardener of exotics. It contains a very extensive catalogue of stove and green-house plants, with the country of each, the care which they require, and marks are added pointing out whether each is annual, biennial, herbaceous, or shrubby. The catalogue is alphabetical, copious, and extensive.

The observations on stoves are singularly useful. The advantages of the general stove, which Mr. Steele recommends, we shall transcribe:

‘ Where several apartments are under one roof, and communicate immediately with each other, much expence in the fabric is saved, the plants they contain may be viewed at once, and the sight is far more grand and striking than where the collection of exotics is deposited in separate conservatories; for in passing and repassing to and from different buildings, you lose much of their collective beauty.

‘ By an addition of wings or end-apartments, the main body of the stove is kept up much warmer than if it stood alone, and therefore is best calculated to preserve, at the least expence of fire, (which is no small consideration in many parts of England) tropical curiosities; and the body of the stove being entered by a flight of steps from each wing, the floor is thereby so much raised as to make the centre part a proper height to fruit the pine-apple in the highest degree of excellence; and a great deal of trouble in draining the ground where it happens to be of a spongy or wet nature is thereby avoided: the floor of the wings or appendages to the stove being kept nearly upon a level with the outer ground, makes the entrance free and easy, and gives to the wings an additional height, which is a most important advantage; for by that means you may draw out of the centre department the palm, banana, and other tall-growing plants, when they have there attained too high growth, and in one wing carry them on to perfection; and in the other wing you are almost enabled, even in the severest winters, from the proper warmth which the main body of the stove affords, without the aid of an additional fire flue to preserve throughout the year rare and tender plants, which require a very good green-house: and by observing the following very short directions, the health and beauty of all the plants is warranted, viz.

A free admission of air in summer into each department at all times of the day when the wind is not troublesome; and in winter by keeping up a constant regular heat in the stoves, never below 60, or 50 at lowest, and in the green-house wing never below 40 of Fahrenheit, by an enjoyment of proper light, and plenty of air whenever there is no frost, fumigating the houses with tobacco about three times in the whole year, and washing the flues with brimstone, as directed in the Discourse upon the Propagation and Culture of the Plants of this Catalogue, under the article *Melia*.

• A general stove, 160 feet in length, and of proper width and height, is capable of containing a prodigious collection of plants for the satisfaction of the curious.

• The chearing influence of the morning sun, especially in the early parts of spring, being of the greatest advantage to all plants contained in the hot-house, I should wish the front of the stove not to be fixed due south, but to have a little inclination to the east.

The pine-apple stove, as our author remarks, is highly proper for grapes; nor is the former plant injured by the vine. If the grapes have the advantage of a pine heat, he advises a strong loamy soil on a clay bottom. If they enjoy less heat, a lighter soil, upon a sand, gravel, limestone, or chalk bottom, is preferable; and this, with a very few local exceptions, we have found from experience to be proper. The particular directions for managing vines seem to be very judicious: we find it impossible to abridge them with advantage. The plan and elevation of a general stove is annexed. The History of Gardening is concise, trite, and superficial.

The particular methods for propagating the different perennials afford a vast fund of judicious and accurate information. This alone would render the present volume interesting and valuable: we shall select a few articles from this part.

• **ABROMA.**—Propagated by seed, which I am told soon loses its vegetating quality, so should be gathered in its native country when full ripe, and sent hither in bees-wax, in the manner directed at the end of this work; and when they arrive here, must be treated as other seeds of curious plants from the hot parts of the world.—When young Jaquin was in England (whose father gave a fine painting of the abroma in flower and fruit, from a garden specimen) he said that they had succeeded at Vienna in making it ripen seed, by placing it in a fervent heat, and giving it an immense deluge of water.—By that culture a strong plant flowered plentifully last summer (1791) in the Thirsk stove, but not appearing inclined to shew fruit, the head of the plant was cut off, having, indeed, grown too lofty for

for the stove; but it is still alive.—A cutting of this plant struck root in the hot-house, but the severity of the winter (1791) destroyed it.

* **CORYPHA.**—Same culture as the cabbage-tree (see Areca.)

—It may not be amiss to introduce in this place a method by which (as I have been told) both this, and many other of the rare palms, may be propagated:—For although I am not prepared to warrant success, yet as seeds of those wonderfully curious plants are difficult to obtain from the distant regions of their native countries, it will be well worth the trial of the curious who are in possession of those great rarities.—The method is as follows:—Certain knots that grow upon the interior parts of the roots of those palms, must be cut off with a small portion of the root at each end; then plant the cutting in light earth in a small pot, plunge it in a good heat, and give little or no water.

* **ERICA.**—Most of the species of this family may be propagated in the same way as the hardier kinds of myrtles, but require poorer earth, (see Myrtus.)—However, as I have not myself been very conversant in their culture, I have endeavoured to procure proper information upon the subject, and am happy to give my readers the following account of a peculiar method of propagating the heaths, which I received from a gentleman on whose knowledge I can with safety depend.

“Heaths are propagated by layers in pots of bog-earth, plunged in a north aspect border;—some sorts strike in one year, but others require two before they emit roots.—In the latter case, remove the pots in winter into a shady part of a common green-house, where no fire is used, and in April or May following (as the season admits) place them in their former situation in the north border.—The Herbacea, Meditæra-nea, Australis, and Triflora, do from cuttings.”

Is it not a very *general* rule, that *all* cuttings of succulent plants and the *leaves* of the aloes should dry some time, in proportion to their succulency, before they are planted? The Chinese moving plant, we know, to be perennial: its motion is, however, not voluntary, but the effect of the solar heat. The following article we shall select on account of the note:

* **MELIA.**—Both propagated by sowing the seed or nuts as soon as possible in pots of light earth;—treat them as others of the same nature from the same countries.—They are subject to the red spider; as soon as a leaf turns yellow it is sure to be there,

and demands immediate attention *.—It is said the pulp which surrounds the nut is of a poisonous quality.—I give this hint as a caution.'

‘**POINCIANA.**—These beautiful exotic shrubs are risen from seed sown in light earth in February, or as soon in the year as possible, and watered occasionally;—get them transplanted as soon as they are ready into the light mixed earth, and use the utmost diligence to get the plants forward in the summer, in order to face the winter, for I have not been able, in the Thirsk stove, to carry a weak plant over winter.—I must remark, that Mr. Stewart, (a very skilful and ingenious man in his profession) gardener to John Blackburne, M. P. grows these plants from strong cuttings, which I think is a very good method, for those strong woody cuttings are far better able to face our winters than weak and tender seedlings.’

‘**JASMINUM.**—This family of plants, of extraordinary beauty and fragrance, may all be propagated by seed, and by laying down the branches;—but the method by which they have all been freely grown in the Thirsk stove, is by cuttings, chosen and managed in the same way as the Double Cape Jasmine (see Gardenia.)—Indeed I dislike laying the branches of the Double Arabian Jasmine, for I lost a beautiful full-grown plant by that means.—A small layer or two to be sure struck root, but that was a poor compensation for the loss of a large mother plant.—It should be remarked, that the three last sorts flower best by being placed in the stove in summer, and preserved in the green-house in winter.’

We cannot transcribe any farther of the scientific part of the work; but the following description is too curious to be omitted. It is more particular and correct than any we have yet seen,

‘Every one skilled in natural history, knows that the mimosa, or sensitive plants, close their leaves and bend their joints upon the least touch: but no end or design of Nature has yet satisfactorily appeared to us from these surprising motions; they soon recover themselves again, and their leaves are expanded as before. But the plant which I am now going to describe, shews that Nature may have some view towards its nourishment, in the forma-

* I am told that the best method of destroying this pernicious insect, is to put a proper quantity of flour of sulphur into the wash which is used for white-washing houses, and apply it with a brush to the hot parts of the flues in the stove. Good effect will soon appear from its effluvia, and the disagreeable smell will be of no long continuance.’

tion of the upper joint of its leaf, like a machine to catch food; upon the middle of this lies the bait for the unhappy insect that becomes its prey.

Many minute red glands that cover its inner surface, and which perhaps discharge sweet liquor, tempt the poor animal to taste them, and the instant these tender parts are irritated by its feet, the two lobes rise up, grasp it fast, lock the rows of spines together, and squeeze it to death. And further, lest the strong efforts for life, in the creature thus taken, should serve to disengage it, three small erect spines are fixed near the middle of each lobe among the glands, that effectually put an end to all its struggles; nor do the lobes ever open again while the dead animal continues there. But it is nevertheless certain, that the plant cannot distinguish an animal from a vegetable or mineral substance; for if we introduce a straw or a pin between the lobes, it will grasp it full as fast as if it was an insect.

Mr. William Young, a native of Philadelphia, informs us, that they grow in shady wet places, and flower in July and August; that the largest leaves which he has seen, were about three inches long, and an inch and a half across the lobes; and observes that the glands of those that were exposed to the sun were of a beautiful red colour, but those in the shade were pale, and inclining to green. It is now become an inhabitant of some gardens in this country, and merits the attention of the curious.

This plant is herbaceous, and grows in the swamps of North-Carolina, near the confines of South-Carolina, about the latitude of thirty-five degrees north; where the winters are short, and the summers very hot. The roots are squamous, sending forth but few fibres, like those of some bulbs; and are perennial. The leaves are many, inclining to bend downwards, and are placed in a circular order; they are jointed and succulent; the lower joint, which is a kind of stalk, is flat, longish, two-edged, and inclining to heart-shaped. In some varieties they are serrated on the edges near the top. The upper joint consists of two lobes, each lobe is of a semi-oval form, with their margins furnished with stiff hairs, like eye-brows, which embrace or lock in each other when they close; this they do when they are inwardly irritated.

The upper surface of these lobes are covered with small red glands, each of which appears, when highly magnified, like a compressed arbutus berry.

Among the glands, about the middle of each lobe, are three very small erect spines. When the lobes inclose any substance, they never open again while it continues there. If it can be shoved out so as not to strain the lobes, they expand again; but if force is used to open them, so strong has nature formed the spring of their fibres, that one of the lobes generally snaps off rather than yield.

The stalk is about six inches high; the flowers milk white; the sensitive quality in proportion to the heat of the season, and the vigour of the plant. It flourishes best in moist, or rather wet earth; but our seasons are not warm enough to ripen feed.

Perhaps the following directions cannot be too generally known. With these we shall conclude our account of this interesting volume, which has the additional ornament of a plan and elevation of a green-house in the Ionic order.

• Choose out the plumpest and most ripe seeds, nuts, or acorns, wipe them very clean, then take melted bees-wax, pour it over a china plate about half an inch deep; as soon as the wax is cool, but still pliable, cut out with a pen-knife as much as will inclose one seed, &c. wrap it round and roll it between the hands till the edge of the wax is perfectly united, and not the least crack to be perceived, and so cover as many seeds, singly, as you mean to pack up. When they are quite cold and hard, prepare an oval chip box of about seven inches long, four and a half broad, and three and a half deep; into this pour melted bees-wax to the depth of an inch and a half, and when you can bear your finger in the wax without any inconvenience, lay the covered seeds, &c. at the bottom in rows as close as you can together, afterwards other rows over them till the box is full; and when the first wax begins to cool, pour some more wax, that is barely fluid, over the uppermost seeds, till they are quite covered. In order to cool the box as soon as possible, place it near a window in the shade, where the sash is raised a little to let a stream of cold air upon it; when the whole is almost cold, if the wax has shrunk a little here and there and left some chinks, let them be immediately filled up with very soft wax, pressing it very close and smooth. After the wax is quite cold and hard, put on the cover of the box, and place it in the coolest and driest part of the ship, to prevent the bees-wax from being affected with the heat of the East and West Indies, which far exceeds our hottest summers.

• No other substance or mixture whatever is comparable to bees-wax; but the chief care in the process, is to mind that the bees-wax is not applied too hot.

• Small seeds in their pods may be preserved by being placed thinly on pieces of paper, cotton, or linen cloth, that have been dipped in wax, then rolled up tight, and well secured from air by a further covering of bees-wax, and afterwards hung up in an airy and cool part of the ship's cabin.

Sectionum Conicarum Libri Septem. Accedit Tractatus de Sectionibus Conicis, et de Scriptoribus qui earum Doctrinam tradiderunt. Auctore Abramo Robertson, A. M. ex Aede Christi. Illustrated with Plates. 4to. 1l. 1s. Elmsly. 1793.

THE work before us is intended for the accommodation of two classes of readers; for such as are content with a knowledge of the general properties of the conic sections, and for those who wish to learn the affections of the curves more thoroughly, with a view to facilitate their advancement in the higher branches of mathematical philosophy. The first four books are meant for the first class, the remaining three for the last. A general idea of the work may be obtained from the following account of the contents of the volume. In the first book, the properties of lines cutting or touching the conical surface, or opposite surfaces, are investigated; and towards the end we have a few propositions which extend to any of the sections. The second book is confined to the parabola. It treats of the general properties of lines, which either cut or touch the parabola; of diameters and their ordinates and parameters; of lines drawn from the curve to the focus and directrix, and concludes with the quadrature of the section. The general properties of lines which cut or touch the ellipse; of diameters and their ordinates and parameters; of lines relating to the foci, and the relation of the ellipse to the circle, occupy the whole of the third book. The whole of the fourth book is employed on the hyperbola and opposite hyperbolas. Its contents are of the same kind with those of the preceding book, as far as the different natures of the sections admit; the nature of the asymptotes is also examined, and the properties of the conjugate hyperbolas: the book then concludes with the relation of hyperbolic sectors. The fifth book consists of propositions enunciated of the ellipse and hyperbola, respecting the axes and their parameters, the foci and directrices: it also contains some propositions applicable to each of the sections. The sixth book treats of the affinity between the diameters of a parabola, and lines parallel to the asymptotes of an hyperbola; of asymptotic parabolas; of trapezia inscribed in a section, and of circles which cut or touch the sections. The seventh book treats of similar sections; of lines cutting or touching the sections and harmonically divided; of circles having the same curvature with the sections, and of the description of the sections through given points.

Throughout these seven books, the author, in our opinion, has successfully exerted himself to complete his original design. A reader who has perused with sufficient attention, the whole
of

of the first six books, and part of the eleventh of Euclid, will meet with no obstacle to his progress in the volume before us. Wherever these parts of Euclid fail him, our author introduces lemmas, and his demonstrations are arranged in a manner perspicuous and strictly geometrical.

The historical account of conic sections, at the end of the volume, is curious and valuable. It is divided into three chapters, and contains information which, as far as we know, is not to be met with in any other publication. In the first chapter, our author enumerates the properties of the sections known before the time of Apollonius, which he has collected with great care from the writings of Archimides, and the commentaries of Eutocius. In the second, we have an account of the methods in which the principal writers on conics have demonstrated their primary properties of the sections; and under this head we have a review of the fundamental propositions of Apollonius, Mydorgius, de la Hire, Milnes, Dr. Hamilton, Guarinus, Jones, Dr. Wallis, and De Witt. The third and last chapter contains an historical account of properties relating to the axes, foci, similarity, quadrature, osculating circles, and description in plans of the sections, and also of the asymptotes of the hyperbola.—The whole of this performance appears to be the result of patient and attentive reading, and of a careful comparing of the authors mentioned in it.

MONTHLY CATALOGUE.

POLITICAL.

A Letter to John Bull, Esq. from his second Cousin Thomas Bull, Author of the Letter from Thomas Bull to his Brother John. 8vo. 1s. Rivingtons.

THE best cause will suffer in unskilful hands. We had, indeed, our hopes that the wholesome admonition which we gave our friend Thomas on the publication of his last letter would have radically cured him of meddling with politics. It is some consolation, however, that if *he* was too obstinate for correction, the Crown and Anchor Association have profited by our hint, and very wisely discarded him from their phalanx of authors: on which, by the way, Mr. Thomas Bull seems not a little sore.—See a note in page 4 of the present Letter.

As it is not fair to condemn any man without full and competent evidence, we shall do our author the justice to let him be heard in his own defence; in plain English, to speak for himself: we shall therefore insert a few specimens illustrative of his elegance, his argument, and his learning, or, in other words, shall exhibit him

him on this occasion in the threefold character of a polite writer, a metaphysician, and a scholar.

1st. For elegant composition—‘That wicked libel of Thomas Paine was dispersed, and even conveyed by stealth like a *rotten egg* into people’s pockets,’ for what? why ‘to prepare them for some *deadly mischief*.’—A consequence which we never before heard was likely to ensue from a *rotten egg*. Again, this same wicked libel was ‘posted up and sold with old shoes and butcher’s meat.’—Again, our elegant author most *pointedly* compares ‘the Rights of Man’ to ‘the right a dog has to a bone,’ and ‘the right of a rat to gnaw our victuals.’ In the same style of ingenuity he compares government to ‘a stage coach;’ and speaks of ‘the Fox being let out of the bag,’ &c.—Could ‘the staymaker of Thetford,’ or the ‘rascally Frenchmen,’ have written more elegantly?

2d. As a specimen of Mr. Bull’s argumentative powers—He proves ‘that wild beasts are *made* to be taken and *destroyed*,’ by a text of scripture—and what do you think reader is that text? ‘God will one day cast out of his kingdom all things that offend.’ In the same spirit, he recommends the Christian religion, because ‘God is called the Lord of Hosts, that is of armies, and celebrated as a *man of war* ;’ and upon this ground our author adds as a corollary, that ‘a government by conquest is, by the laws of God, a legal government,’ and to deny this principle is downright *atheism*. With equal ingenuity he makes the belief of a future state an argument against *political* œconomy, and a reason why kings and ministers should spend as much as they please. ‘The very persons who are most clamorous against our pecuniary distresses are they whose politics brought upon us the enormous increase of our national debt’—and who are they? Why many of them ‘are found amongst those, who can earn high wages for one half of the week, and spend the rest at a public house.’

From his former Letter we had our suspicions that *Thomas Bull* was only a feigned name, and that our author was really and truly Terence Macmanus, or Phelim O’Blunder, from a neighbouring island.—In this opinion we are now confirmed, and need only cite as a proof the last sentence of his pamphlet, where he asserts—‘That if the French emigrants had been under the *necessity* of *dying* with their swords in their hands, they would have *saved themselves* and their country.’

3d. For the learning of Mr. Thomas Bull we need only refer to his attempt to prove that ‘*lex* means the law as it is written, and *jus* the law as it is administered.’ Every schoolboy knows that *jus* strictly implies the general abstract principle of right or law, and *lex* a particular law of a particular people: though there is some laxity in the use of the words in the classical authors; but nothing to favour Thomas Bull’s conjecture. Almost every nation too has its *lex scripta*, and *lex non scripta*. Our author’s attempt to explain

plain the Latin word *jus* by the English word *justice*, reminded us of Swift's derivations, as well as of the jest-book story of the gentleman who would reform upon the orthography of the word *justice* of the peace, which he affirmed ought to be spelt *just-afs*, because that officer bore the burden of the public business.

The most sublime discovery, however, resulting from the erudition of our author is, 'that the government of the Israelites was a *monarchy*, long prior to the appointment of Saul.' The French, we apprehend, will not be much displeased with this writer for the parallel which he draws between their republic and the Roman commonwealth—For our own part we cannot but think that the comparison is too great a compliment to Mess. Roberspierre, and Co.

The self-complacency of Mr. Thomas Bull is not a little exalted by the success of his first Letter, of which he boasts that two hundred thousand have been distributed.—The circumstance may afford a proof of the *loyalty*, but certainly not of the *taste* and *judgment* of the good people of England.

Prospects on the War and Paper Currency. The second Edition, corrected. By Thomas Paine. 8vo. 2s. Ridgway. 1793.

While we, as true friends to Old England, deprecate most heartily the continuance of hostilities, we doubt not but the *virtuous* and *benevolent* Mr. Paine is smiling at our misfortunes, and triumphing in the accumulation of the public burdens, which is certainly the only means of accomplishing the pernicious projects of him, and his republican associates in Great Britain.

The present pamphlet, however, we understand from the advertisement prefixed, was not written with any reference to the present situation of Great Britain, but was composed in the year 1787, on the prospect of a rupture with Holland. This being the case, it may be read without those apprehensions which any thing coming at present from the pen of Mr. Paine would naturally excite; and as we cannot deny that he possesses considerable acuteness, and some share of political knowledge, it certainly contains many important observations on the general effects of war, and particularly on this country. Of this kind are the following:

'But independent of all civil and moral considerations, there is no possible event that a war could produce to England, on the present occasion, that could in the most distant proportion recompence the expence we must be at. War involves in its progress such a train of unforeseen and un-supposed circumstances, such a combination of foreign matters, that no human wisdom can calculate the end. It has but one thing certain, and that is increase of *taxes*. The policy of European courts is now so cast, and their interest so interwoven with each other, that however easy it may be to begin a war, the weight and influence of interfering nations compel even the conqueror to unprofitable conditions of peace.

'Com-

‘Commerce and maritime strength are now becoming the fashion, or rather the rage of Europe, and this naturally excites in them a combined wish to prevent England encreasing its comparative strength by destroying, or even relatively weakening the other, and therefore, whatever views each may have at the commencement of a war, new enemies will arise as either gains the advantage, and continual obstacles ensue to embarrass success.’

‘The most able English statesmen and politicians have always held it as a principle, that foreign connections served only to embarrass and exhaust England. That, surrounded by the ocean, she could not be invaded as countries are on the continent of Europe, and that her insular situation dictated to her a different system of politics to what those countries required, and that to be enleagued with them was sacrificing the advantages of situation to a capricious system of politics. That though she might serve them, they could not much serve her; and that as the service must at all times be paid for, it could always be procured when it was wanted; and that it would be better to take it up in this line than to embarrass herself with speculative alliances that served rather to draw her into a continental war on their account, than extricate her from a war undertaken on her own account.’

‘It will always happen, that any rumour of war will be popular among a great number of people of London. There are thousands who live by it; it is their harvest; and the clamour which those people keep up in newspapers and conversations, passes unsuspectingly for the voice of the people, and it is not till after the mischief is done, that the deception is discovered.’

‘The remarks of Mr. Paine on the state of our manufactures are also deserving of attention.—In short, abhorring as we do, the republican politics of Mr. Paine, when he appears as the advocate for peace, we are even ready to shake hands with him:

‘*Fas est ab hoste doceri.*’

Petition of the Friends of the People. To the Honourable the Commons of Great Britain, in Parliament assembled, presented by Charles Grey, Esq. 8vo. 3d. Ridgway. 1793.

As this Petition has been made public through so many of the usual channels, it is unnecessary to enlarge on its contents.

A short Review addressed to the Right Hon. C. J. Fox. By a Westminster Elector. Dedicated to John Reeves, Esq. Promoter of the Associations for the Protection of Liberty and Property against Republicans and Levellers. 8vo. 1s. Parsons. 1793.

A patchwork of garbled quotations from the speeches of Mr. Fox. This literary taylor has knavishly cabbaged from his customers

tomers of both parties, and has put together an odd-fashioned sort of a sleeveless jerkin, which, with all the flourishes of a salesman from St. Giles's, he *brings home* to Mr. Reeves, and begs he will wear, as chairman of the Crown and Anchor Association. The blue and buff pieces are interveined with parings of dirty orange and angry scarlet, and the general aspect is heightened, by a tassel, here and there, of treasury tinsel. Nothing can be wanting to fet off this elegant, though fanciful garment, but the addition of a cap and bells, which, we earnestly hope, some other gentleman of the trade will be zealous enough to supply.

Knave's-Acre Association. Resolutions adopted at a Meeting of Placemen, Pensioners, &c. held at the Sign of the Crown, Knave's-Acre, for the Purpose of forwarding the Designs of the Place and Pension Club lately instituted in London. Faithfully copied from the original Minutes of the Society. By Old Hubert. 8vo. 4d. Spence. 1793.

An ironical enumeration of what are by some deemed the existing grievances of this nation.

An Address to the Hon. Edmund Burke, from the Swinish Multitude. 8vo. 6d. Ridgway. 1793.

From the title of this pamphlet we were led to expect more wit than it contains. — Mr. Burke is constantly laying himself open to ridicule, and much excellent raillery might have been produced under the cover of this Address.

Considerations on Reform; with a specific Plan for a new Representation, addressed to Charles Grey, Esq. Member of Parliament for Northumberland. By Miles Popple, late Fellow of Trinity College, Cambridge. 8vo. 1s. Debrett. 1793.

Although the arguments of this author are ingenious, we are induced, for the sake of introducing to our readers, what is yet more an object of curiosity, a *specific plan* for the representation of the people, to forego our remarks on the introductory part.

The author proposes,

‘ 1. The right of voting to belong to every person assessed to the window-tax.

‘ 2. Great Britain to be divided into 279 districts, each to return two representatives, and to contain as nearly as possible the same number of electors.

‘ 3. An exception to the two preceding articles to be made with regard to London, where the districts should comprehend a larger number of houses, but the right of voting belong only to those assessed at so many windows, as to reduce the number of electors to the same with that in the other districts.

‘ 4. The names of all assessed to the window-tax to be given in
by

by the collectors to a register-office appointed for such purpose in every district.

‘ 5. None to be permitted to poll without a certificate from this office.

‘ 6. Upon delivery of this certificate, a sum, not exceeding one shilling, to be paid for defraying the expence of the poll, publishing lists of the voters, and other incidents.

‘ 7. A third of the representative body to go out annually, on a certain day, and according to a settled rotation of the districts; and not to be eligible again till after an interval of three years.

‘ 8. Their successors to be regularly chosen on a stated day, and a fortnight previous to the old members going out.

‘ 9. The election always to be finished in one day: and this to be effected by equal subdivisions of the districts, in each of which the poll should be carried on at the same time, and by house-holders belonging to the same; and none permitted to vote but in their own subdivision marked upon their certificate.

‘ 10. In any district when the voters should amount to 100 above the first number, the excess to be added to the next adjoining district or districts; and should the voters in these, either before or within this addition, exceed the due proportion by the same or a greater number, these to be reduced in like manner, by annexing the surplus to the districts adjoining to them.

‘ 11. No election treats, nor any election meeting to be allowed, where each person present did not bear his proportion of the expence.

‘ 12. No cognizance to be taken of bribes given or received, nor any other qualification of the representative required than a certificate from the returning officers, of his being neglected by a majority of the district.

‘ 13. For a certain period no elector should be allowed to exercise his right of voting, without paying annually a sum not exceeding five shillings, to raise a fund for indemnifying the proprietors of private boroughs.

‘ 14. This temporary and optional tax to be collected at the same time with the window-duty, and to be paid into the register-office of the district.

‘ 15. Lastly, whilst this tax continued, no certificate to be delivered from the above office without such arrears as were due being first paid, nor when these arrears extended to above one year, nor within six weeks of the day of election, except to such as had previously paid the full amount of the tax.’

Our author next anticipates objections (many of which no doubt will occur to the reader): in some instances defending his original opinion, in others proposing an alternative. We would gladly follow him through this discussion, but the necessary limits of our
account

account oblige us rather to refer those who would be more minutely informed to the publication itself.

The Reason of Man: with Strictures on the Rights of Man, and other of Mr. Paine's Works. 8vo. 1s. Murray. 1792.

This is one of the many publications which have lately made their appearance in this country to counteract the extension of republican doctrines. The writer has shewn some ability in controverting them, and his arguments have a degree of force which is likely to operate to the advantage of the cause he espouses. We cannot however avoid remarking, that he has fallen into that vulgar, and, with some of the opposers of the democratic system, we may probably say, wilful error, of supposing equality in a political sense to imply an equality of property.

‘Republican government, says he, which can only exist in its simple state by the principle of equality, can never be congenial to science, or friendly to commerce.—Intellectual superiority must create a distinction on the one hand; and property, the fruit of industry, will give a power and consequence to the possessors, on the other, derogatory to that equality upon which republics are built. — In fact, republican government, in the present state of man, is a farce;—and the conduct of the people acting under it will be a continual violation of its principles.—The distinctions of society will still find “*a local habitation and a name,*” though they may assume a different shape, to what they now appear in.—*Wisdom, strength, and industry,* will still share greater privileges than *folly, imbecility, and idleness*—Power and influence will attach itself to property—Cunning will still outwit credulity; and in short, whatever transformation government may undergo, one part of the community will live by the labour of another.

‘It appears to me, that a republican government, which derives its very essence from equality, must, as it becomes perfect, approximate to a state of nature.—and in one sense the republic of France establishes the fact.—The people of that country have uncivilised themselves to all intents and purposes; we can only distinguish their conduct from that of an Indian banditti, but in finding different terms applied to the same actions.—The ferocity of the Indian, in the modern republican, assumes the softer appellation of courage; and whilst the Indian openly avows revenge as the motive for sacrificing his defenceless enemies, the more cultivated European republican does the same inhuman act, and dignifies it with the name of patriotism.

‘In republican governments, whatever the genius of man may invent, or his industry acquire, if it be more than sufficient to satisfy the cravings of nature, is a kind of monopoly fatal to his system; he is receding from that *happy point* of equality where distinctions

inctions lay confounded. — It is a government where virtue must not be honoured, because it puts vice to shame — where industry must not possess property, because it excites the envy of those, who are too idle to acquire it; and where the only power which is delegated in the nation, is to stop the complaints of those, who have the boldness to say — “*These things are not right.*”

Though we are far from approving republican government, yet we must say that the possession of property is fully as consistent with that system as with monarchy itself. Property is not now more equalised in America than before her separation from Britain; or, if it be, it extends to nothing beyond that fair and proportional participation on the part of the poorer classes which the rich in every country must have a pleasure in contemplating. Although we dissent from the doctrines of this writer in very many points, we should not do justice to his work if we did not afford it some degree of commendation.

Better Prospects to the Merchants and Manufacturers of Great Britain.

By William Playfair. Dedicated to the Members of the House of Commons. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Stockdale. 1793.

Mr. Playfair appears to be the regular agent of ministry, appointed to defend all their measures through thick and thin. We are astonished that they have not been able to hire a better writer or an abler advocate, as Mr. Playfair is scarcely able to write a sentence of Grammar. The treasury board surely gives poor salaries.

The paper and print of this pamphlet are about upon a par with its contents.

An Address to the Inhabitants of Great Britain on the dangerous and destructive Tendency of the French System of Liberty and Equality, with an historical Account of the French Revolution, the Imprisonment and Sufferings of the royal Family, and the deliberate Murder of the unfortunate King of France. By Thomas Moore, Officer of Excise, Wetherby. 8vo. 1s. Baldwin. 1793.

This worthy exciseman has carefully gauged and calculated the comparative excellence of the French and British governments, and has fairly determined, after cyphering fifty pages, that England has it all to nothing!

Notes on the Claim of the British Peers to vote at the Elections of the Representatives of the Peerage of Scotland to Parliament. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Debrett. 1793.

This writer regards this claim as of fatal tendency, not only to the free election of the Scottish sixteen peers, but in a great degree to that of the house of lords.

C. R. N. AR. (VIII.) *August, 1793.*

I i

The

The legal and constitutional Principles of the Declaration of the Friends of the Liberty of the Press. Written by the Hon. Thomas Erskine, examined; and the Associations vindicated. 1s. Debrett. 1793.

From a prevailing disposition in this author to dispute the point in a legal way, and from the abundance of references to legal authorities, which appear at the foot of almost every page, we are led to conjecture, that the author is some new-fledged barrister, who finds plenty of *leisure* for political studies. What figure this gentleman would make against the opponent he has called forth, in that scene of wrangling in Westminster-hall, we know not; but, in the present contest, he appears to be an adversary of a very contemptible description, and not likely to attract the notice of any individual of that society whose able declaration he has taken exceptions to. We consider, in short, every thing like argument in the present work, to have arisen out of two sources, which never fail those who are determined on opposition to any measure or doctrine, be they ever so unexceptionable; we mean misrepresentation and partial quotation, both of which are distinguishable, in a variety of instances.

The Question between Great Britain and France, as shaped by the Conduct of Ministers, briefly considered; and an impartial Sketch of the Causes of the War. By a Man of no Party. 8vo. 2s. Kerby. 1793.

This author, after taking a view of the progress of liberty, and censuring, much alike, the writings of Paine and Burke, the former of whom he considers as a political empiric, the latter as a rhapsodical defender of tyranny and priestcraft, proceeds to argue the question, whether 'French principles shall prevail in Britain, or she shall retain her own constitution?' His arguments, such as they are, incline to the latter, although he is decidedly of opinion, that a reform in parliamentary representation is necessary. We cannot say, however, that the author has brought forward any new arguments, or that they are such as will affect the opinions of those who think differently on the subject.

A Short Answer to the Declaration of the Persons calling themselves the Friends of the Liberty of the Press. By John Bowles, Esq. of the Inner Temple, Barrister at Law. 8vo. 6d. Downes. 1793.

This will prove a very dear bargain to any unwary purchaser, who may expect to find the several important points, contained in the declaration of the Society for supporting the liberty of the press, fully answered. Mr. Bowles, like a true lawyer, has very ingeniously contrived to mingle a grain or two of half-starved wheat in two dozen pages of literary chaff. Whatever might be the

the effect of such a compound, when graced by the learned gentleman's eloquence in Westminster Hall, its operation on the public mind must be extremely volatile and evanescent, since, willing as we are to do justice to his labours, we do not find one single argument worth detailing. This being a *short* answer, that is, not quite enough, even with the help of roomy printing, to make a shilling pamphlet, the author has occupied some of the concluding pages with a transcript of one of the advertisements published by the Society at the Crown and Anchor Tavern. The proprietors of newspapers may sleep quietly in their beds, however, since we can answer for their suffering no sensible injury from this infringement on their province.

EAST INDIA AFFAIRS.

A short History of the East India Company: exhibiting a State of their Affairs, Abroad and at Home, Political and Commercial; the Nature and Magnitude of their Commerce, and its relative Connection with the Government and Revenues of India; also Remarks on the Danger and Impolicy of Innovation, and the practical Means of ensuring all the good Effects of a free Trade to the Manufacturers of Great Britain and Ireland, by Matter of Regulation, without disturbing the established System. By a Proprietor of East India Stock. 4to. 4s. Sewell. 1793.

This ample title sufficiently declares the tendency of this pamphlet, written by a proprietor of East India stock. It is divided into fourteen chapters, and an introduction is prefixed. In the third chapter the author distinguishes the territories of the company, gained by purchase, from those acquired by conquest.

' The result of this investigation is, that Fort St. George, Madras, and Vizagapatam, and every other valuable sea port possessed at this time by the company on the coast of Coromandel, and visited by their ships from hence, together with their settlements of Fort William and Calcutta on the Ganges, Fort Malbro' or York-Fort at Bencoolen, and the islands of Bombay and St. Helena, were purchased by the old East India company, and conveyed by them to the present company in full right for ever.

' At these ports, and above all at Calcutta, Madras, and Bombay, the company are equally intitled to port duties and customs on imports and exports, as they are to the places themselves, and have been in the constant exercise and enjoyment thereof at all times. The towns of Madras and Calcutta as well as the two forts, are built chiefly, if not intirely, upon the lands of the company, under annual ground rents. By grants obtained from the native powers, they are also possessed of, and intitled in perpetuity to the Five Northern Circars, the Purgunnahs and Jagheer

lands, and sundry valuable factories and houses of trade on different parts of the continent of Asia, and in the Asiatic islands. To these therefore the public have no claim whatever.'

The sixth chapter attempts to shew that the odious appellation of a chartered monopoly cannot justly be applied to the East India trade: and the parliamentary regulations and restrictions, seem to constitute our author's chief ground of distinction. In the ensuing chapter the plans formerly recommended, for varying the mode of conducting the trade to the East Indies, are enumerated. Cromwell, as our author observes, laid the trade open; but the adventurers were ruined, and the company was restored, after an interval of four or five years.

The thirteenth chapter argues strongly against any innovation on the present plan; and the next presents practical means of securing to the private merchant, and the public, the ultimate benefits of trade within the company's present exclusive limits, without endangering the link of our political connection with India, or materially disturbing the present system.

At the end is a concise statement of the income of the East India company, with the heads of the agreement for their new charter, as far as they can be collected from the printed correspondence between the minister for India and the court of directors. This paper, presenting a clear and useful abstract of the whole business, we shall beg leave to lay it before our readers.

'The net annual income in rents and profits of trade, taken in the most unfavourable light to the company, and supposed to be considerably under the mark, is rated at - - - - - £. 2,329,164

'At present, subject only to the payments following. (*viz.*)

'Interest of £. 3,200,000 on bond at 4 per cent. - - - - - £. 128,000

'Ditto of £. 6,669,082 due in India at various rates, making on the medium about $8\frac{3}{4}$ per cent. - - - - - 561,923

'Dividend of 8 per cent. on present capital of five millions 400,000

£. 1,089,923

'Leaving a net annual surplus of - - - - - £. 1,239,241

'Heads for the agreement as far as it has yet proceeded.

'1st. The trade to and from India is to be so far laid open, as to admit a free exportation by private persons on their own account, of the manufactures of Great Britain or Ireland, with an exception

exception of naval and military stores and metals, and of a free importation of such sorts of the raw materials of the East Indies, as are used in our own manufactures, according to a list or tariff thereof to be inserted in the act of parliament, or in the alternative, the company are to give bills payable in London, for the produce of the sales of the goods in India to the exporters thereof.

‘ 2d. The East India company shall be obliged to provide shipping for the carriage of the private trade, at as low a freight as it could be furnished by private merchants; and to license a proper number of agents to reside at the company’s settlements, under their protection, for the management of the private trade.

‘ 3d. If under lord Macartney’s embassy to China any new settlements shall be obtained separate and distinct from the continent of China, whereby new channels may be advantageously opened for a further export of British and Irish goods, parliament in that case reserves full power to open the export trade into those seas to such an extent, as in its wisdom shall be thought proper: but so regulated as to secure to the company the full benefit of their exclusive trade with Canton.

‘ 4th. Subject to the above preliminaries, the company’s term in the exclusive trade is to be enlarged for twenty years, commencing from the 1st March, 1794, making in the whole from this time 21 years.

‘ 5th. The East India company shall forthwith add, by new subscriptions, one million to their capital stock, for augmenting it to six millions sterling, and apply the produce thereof in the immediate reduction of their bond debt to one million and an half, beyond which it is not again to be raised.

‘ 6th. Instead of the present dividend of eight per cent. on the capital of five millions, the company shall for the future have a priority of payment of a dividend of ten per cent. on the increased capital of six millions.

‘ 7th. That 500,000l. a year shall be converted into a sinking fund for the gradual discharge of the India Debt to three millions; below which, it is not thought prudent to reduce it.

‘ 8th. That out of the remainder, a sum not exceeding 500,000l. a year, shall be paid into the exchequer by quarterly payments, for the use of the public.

‘ 9th. Lastly, The further resulting surplus is to be appropriated for the benefit of the public and of the company, in such manner as parliament shall think fit; whatever share shall be paid to the exchequer, the public are to have the use of it without interest; but the payments to the exchequer are nevertheless to be deemed liable to the calls of the company upon any pressing emergency, and held also as a collateral security for the payment of their dividends, as well as for their capital or trading stock, should it by any calamity or loss become deteriorated.

N. B. It has not yet been adjusted with government, whether the whole or what proportion of the remaining surplus shall be paid into the exchequer, or whether any part of it shall be retained as a further dividend to the proprietors. By the rapid extinction of the India debt carrying so large a rate of interest as $8\frac{3}{4}$ per cent. and by the intended savings in the article of freight, and by other plans of economy, the remaining surplus must soon accumulate to a large annual amount. The sinking fund for the India debt will itself become part of that surplus in the space of seven years, if that debt should not be again increased. It is therefore to be presumed, that the company will find no difficulty in prevailing in the *just and reasonable expectations* they have formed, of a still further contingent dividend on their capital out of the increasing surplus. According to the present computed produce of it, there will be left 107,241. unappropriated, either to the public or the company, as appears by the following statement :

Net income, as above	-	-	£. 2,329,164
<i>Whereout,</i>			
Interest of the debt in India	£. 561,923		
Interest of bond debt reduced to			
£. 1,500,000	-	-	60,000
Dividend of £. 10 per cent. on the			
capital of six millions	-	-	600,000
Sinking fund for the India debt	-		500,000
To be paid to the public, not exceeding	-	-	500,000
		<hr/>	<hr/>
			2,221,923

The present unappropriated annual surplus is £. 107,241

As to the grand question, concerning the laying open of our trade to the East Indies, we must confess our doubts of its success, inimical as we are to all monopoly. We have heard West India merchants affirm that this step would completely ruin our West India settlements, in the course of ten years, the East Indies affording such a superior mart for every article to be had in the west. It may be said that this argument is of little consequence to the public at large, whose interest it is to be supplied with every article as cheap as possible ; but it must be reflected that our power and settlements in the east stand on a much more precarious situation than those in the west ; and if we ruined the latter ourselves, and were then driven from the former, where is to be our resource ?

A Trea-

L A W.

A Treatise upon the Law and Proceedings in Cases of High Treason, &c. By a Barrister at Law. 8vo. 3s. 6d. Boards. Whieldon and Butterworth. 1793.

The subject of this Treatise has been recommended to the attention of the public by a late solemn act of the legislature, which hath extended the law as it anciently stood, and applied its operation to various particulars. That act, however, having passed since the publication before us, it could not be noticed in it.

If we may judge from the style of the preface, this work is a juvenile production, but though we conceive it susceptible of considerable improvement, it would be injustice to withhold from it a considerable portion of praise.

It consists of four chapters, under the distinct heads of, I. High Treason. II. Misprision of Treason. III. Felonies and other Offences against the King and Government. IV. Proceedings in Cases of High Treason, &c.

Several trials that have lately taken place having directed our attention to *words spoken*, we will select that article as a specimen.

‘Formerly treasonable *words spoken*, amounted to an overt act, and two cases are cited in the reign of Edward the Fourth; one of a man living at the sign of the Crown, who told his child, he would make him *heir of the crown*. The other of Thomas Burdet, who wished the horns of a favourite buck, in the belly of him who advised the king to kill it. But these were arbitrary cases; and because words admit of such an endless variety of constructions, it has been determined that mere loose words, not relating to any treasonable purpose in agitation, are not an overt act. It was resolved in Pyne’s case “that no words were treason, unless by some particular statute. And sir Edward Coke says, words may make a man an heretic, but not a traitor, without an overt act.”

‘Thus much of loose words in general; but words may *expound* an overt act, in itself *indifferent*, but when coupled with the words, they may be an exposition of compassing. As were these words, in *Crobagan’s* case, ‘I will kill the king, if I may come unto him;’ it being proved he came into England, for that purpose. Also these words “the king being excommunicated by the pope, may be lawfully deposed and killed, by any whatsoever, which killing is not murder.” “If the king should arrest me of high treason I would stab him.” “If king Henry the Eighth will not take back his wife, he shall not be king, but shall die.” Also words which manifestly shew a design to kill the king, make an overt act, though the design be future and conditional.’

To this add, what is observed on words *written and published*.

‘These, whether in letters or books, will make an overt act, if the matter contained, imports a compassing. As was *Twyn’s*

case for publishing "a treatise on the execution of justice," asserting, that the supreme magistrate, was accountable to the people, and that they might take arms, to put the king to death. Also in the case of *Williams* for inclosing and sending, in a box, to Charles the First, a book, declaring that the king should die in the year 1621, and that the kingdom should be destroyed. Publishing a book, or sending a letter, inciting a foreign invasion, is an overt act; for the death of the king would probably be the consequence.

• Even writings *unpublished*, have sometimes convicted their authors of treason. Such was *Peachum's* case, in whose study was found a manuscript sermon, which had never been preached or published; he was not executed, for sir George Croke tells us "many of the judges were of opinion, it was not high treason." *Algernon Sidney's* case was much harder. He was one of the conspirators, [charged with being] engaged with lord Russel, in the Rye-House plot, to assassinate Charles the Second; only one witness, lord Howard, deposed against him, and the law required two; his closet was searched, and a discourse, evidently written many years before, in which it was maintained that kings were accountable to the people for their conduct, was deemed equivalent to a second witness. To this stratagem he fell a sacrifice, but it was to the general discontent of the nation, and to the eternal disgrace of the sovereign.

The Duties and powers of Public Officers and private Persons with Respect to Violations of the Public Peace.

This pamphlet consists only of a single sheet, but the utility of it is greatly superior to its extent. It contains a short account of many things useful, and even necessary to be known. The author first enumerates and describes those offences against the public peace, which it is the interest of the whole society to have suppressed; and afterwards points out the manner in which the subjects of the country, in their respective situations, are either authorised or obliged by law to interfere in their suppression.

A Bill presented to the House of Lords by Lord Rawdon: intituled, an Act for amending the Law of Imprisonment on Mesne Process; and for better regulating the Law and Practice of Bail; and for the Relief of unfortunate, and the Punishment of fraudulent insolvent Debtors. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Ridgway. 1793.

Lord Rawdon is entitled to great praise for his humanity in devising, and his zeal in prosecuting this bill. The heads of it have already been made known to the public by means of the newspapers; and any farther account of the subject would now be superfluous. Suffice it to say, that though some parts of it met with the disapprobation of lords conversant with the laws, other parts were regarded as highly salutary. The progress of the bill is at present

There is an apparent discrepancy at this point.

The pages are either missing or the pagination is incorrect.

The filming is recorded as the book is found in the collections.

present suspended, and whether it will be revived in the next session of parliament, we know not. But lord Rawdon has already intimated a resolution of bringing into parliament a bill for restraining the iniquitous practices of pettyfogging attorneys; a grievance universally acknowledged to exist, and the removal of which will, it is probable, greatly diminish the pernicious effects intended to be abolished by the bill detailed in this pamphlet.

R E L I G I O U S, &c.

A Sermon, preached Feb. 3, 1793, at the Scots Church, London Wall, on Occasion of the Trial, Condemnation, and Execution of Louis XVI. late King of France. With some Additions and Illustrations. By Henry Hunter, D. D. To which is subjoined, at the earnest Request of many respected Friends, a Republication of a Discourse on the Rise and Fall of the Papacy; originally published in the first Year of the present Century. By Robert Fleming, V. D. M. then Minister of the Scots Church in London. 8vo. 3s. 6d. Murray. 1793.

Dr. Hunter's is a sensible and pious discourse, but is degraded by the matter with which it is connected.

It is indeed something surprising, that in an age when substantial religion is so lamentably neglected, so much superstition should be found to prevail. Both these effects are, however, the natural consequences of *ignorance*, and we have more than once had occasion to stigmatize the present as an ignorant and unlearned age.

In no instance has the public credulity been more grossly played with (not by Dr. De Mainaduc himself) than in the discovery of pretended prophecies as relating to the French revolution.—Now if we but consider that in the last century, the Revelation and the other prophetic books were the constant theme of the puritanical divines, and that the uniform tendency of all their discourses was to predict the downfall of the *pope* and the *French king* (the two great bugbears of the day) it would be extraordinary indeed, if among the quantities of this nonsense with which the press was charged, something like a coincidence of time should not happen to some of these *prophets*. Some dark allusions in Dr. Fleming's discourse concerning great troubles to the pope, which are to *begin* in the year 1794, are by the *wise seers* of the present day applied to the affairs of France.

Prophetic Conjectures on the French Revolution, and other recent and shortly expected Events, with an Introduction and Remarks. 8vo. 1s. Button. 1793.

It is easy to prophecy after an event has taken place.—But after what we observed in our review of Dr. Fleming's Sermon, it is unnecessary to enlarge on this despicable mode of picking the pockets of the public, and sporting with their folly and credulity.

Of the present publication let it suffice to say, that the editor has raked together all the *trash* of the old puritans, and other enthusiasts

thusiasts that was at all likely to answer his purpose—of fabricating a catch-penny pamphlet.

An Address delivered at the English Church at Rotterdam, previous to the Thanksgiving Service, on Wednesday Evening, April 10th, 1793, for the total Retreat of the French, from the Dutch Territories. By John Hall. 8vo. 1s. Dilly. 1793.

This is something between a political pamphlet and a sermon. It is divino-political or politico-divine, which ever the reader chuses. Taken in either sense, however, it is not worth perusal.

The Duty of supporting and defending our Country and Constitution: a Discourse preached at Middleham, in the County of York, Feb. 10, 1793, on the Prospect of a War. With a Preface, on the Principles of French Civism. By R. B. Nickolls, L. L. B. Dean of Middleham. 8vo. 1s. Dilly. 1793.

The reverend author of this discourse takes occasion, from Psal. cxxii. v. 6—9, to exhort his readers to a resolute defence of our present constitution in church and state. It is for the safety of the former, however, that he seems to be more particularly anxious. We should have thought the greater part of his sermon more applicable had he taken for his text—‘No peace saith our God to the wicked,’ since it consists of little else than a recital of the effects of irreligion amongst our neighbours the French. Prefixed is a dedication to the gentlemen, clergy, and freeholders of Middleham, &c. &c. &c. with a preface on the nature of French civism. In neither of these can we give the author credit for any thing but his zeal, which, some ill-natured persons may be disposed to insinuate, is, in such an instance as the present, rather dictated by interest than patriotism.

Methodism set forth and defended, in a Sermon, on Acts xxviii. 22. preached at the opening of Portland-Chapel, Bristol, August 26, 1792. By Samuel Bradburn. 8vo. 6d. Lancaster and Edwards, Bristol. 1793.

This defence of Methodism is exceedingly common-place, and though it may find readers among those who feel interested in the question, will have little effect on unprejudiced minds. As we understand the author to have been a mechanic of that description, to whom we are in the habit of entrusting our souls, some little credit is due to him for the neat manner of putting together a discourse, that, at least, does no violence to common English, whatever it may do to common sense.

A Companion to the Book of Common Prayer of the Church of England: containing a Comment on the Service for Sundays, including the Collects, Epistles, and Gospels. To which are added, Questions, for the Use of Teachers in Schools and Families. By Mrs. Trimmer. 2 Vols. 12mo. 4s. Boards. Longman. 1791.

We have perused this Companion with great pleasure: it is clear, explicit,

explicit, and satisfactory; and we would recommend it to the younger enquirer, and to all who consider the public ordinances of religion as deserving their attention. From the period of the composition, much must be obsolete in the Common Prayer: from other circumstances some parts must be obscure, and some, but they are few, objectionable.

An Attempt to familiarize the Catechism of the Church of England. In the Catechetical Form, for the Use of Teachers in Schools and Families. 12mo. 1s. 6d. Boards. Longman. 1791.

The language of this Attempt is perhaps too familiar: to descend too low is to be vulgar or puerile; and to be too particular, is sometimes to be obscure or embarrassed. Our author has, in general, failed by his attempts to excel. In many parts, however, his explanation is correct and judicious.

An Explanation of the Office for the public Baptism of Infants; and of the Order for the Confirmation of those who are come to Years of Discretion. In the Catechetical Form, for the Use of Teachers in Schools and Families, when preparing young Persons to be confirmed by the Bishop. By Mrs. Trimmer. 12mo. 1s. Boards. Longman. 1791.

This deserves the same character as Mrs. Trimmer's work just noticed: it is equally clear, judicious, and satisfactory.

Observations on some important Points of Divinity: chiefly those in Controversy between the Arminians and Calvinists. With three Dialogues in which the said Points are further illustrated. The Whole intended as an Antidote against the pernicious Tenets of Antinomians and Necessitarians. Extracted from an Author of the last Century, by Ely Bates, Esq. 12mo. 2s. 6d. sewed. Law and Son. 1793.

The leading object professed by the editor of this work is to countervail, as far as possible, the doctrine of necessity, which he conceives to be not pernicious in itself, but as daily gaining ground amongst us; and in his Preface, having quoted what Dr. Priestley had advanced concerning Mr. Edwards' book on that subject, which the doctor had represented as *unanswerable*, Mr. Bates states what he apprehends will be found a full refutation of the principle on which Mr. Edwards's doctrine is grounded: namely, that his whole book is one metaphysical quibble. After all, the debate is perhaps more about words than things; for, whether we consider truth, the fitness of things, utility, the greatest good, or the will of God to be the determining principle of duty, it can only be from the operation of the one or other of these upon us, that the rectitude, the propriety, the benevolence, or piety of our conduct can possibly be decided. The power of examining the various motives which present themselves is essential to our rational na-

ture, and in the present exercise of it, our capacity of moral government and accountableness consists; but there can be neither merit nor demerit in our actions further than as they are the necessary result of good or bad motives. Consistent with this is the precept of St. Paul: *prove all things, and hold fast that which is good.*

In what light Mr. Bates or others may regard this doctrine is a matter of little moment. Neither liking to impute or assume the distinctions of parties, we are solicitous alone for the truth. Perhaps the worthy editor of the work before us may be disposed on reflection to place us (to use his own expression) upon 'that middle point where all that is good in the two extremes of Arminianism and Calvinism meet, and all that is exceptionable is excluded. The grace of God being here vindicated without subverting his moral government; and the liberty of man asserted without usurping upon the grace of God. Or though difficulties should still remain, and some difficulties must ever remain upon such subjects, so much at least is offered, as may greatly assist an impartial enquirer in forming his judgment.'

As a republication of an old work, this little tract comes not regularly under our notice. We doubt not, however, that it has been revived from a good motive, any more than that there are readers whose taste it may suit.

Reflections, moral and political, on the Murder of Louis XVI. in a Sermon, preached on that Occasion, on Sunday, February 30, 1793; and published by particular Desire. 8vo. 1s. Edwards. 1793.

It is not difficult, from the heterogeneous mixture of sanctity and jargon which distinguish this publication, to conjecture from what quarter it proceeds. The Dedication, in particular, smells strongly of the cringing candidate for city favours. Addressing the lord mayor, aldermen, and common council of London, the author says,

'It is but a few years ago, that, upon a very critical occasion, you were called to particular exertions, for the security of the ecclesiastical establishment of this country. The situation, to which I was then appointed, afforded me an opportunity, in my official capacity, of attending your debates, at that interesting crisis; and, I have the pleasure to recollect, with what wisdom and resolution they were conducted, and with what success they were followed.'

After this he forgets his illustrious patrons for a moment, and in the middle of a sentence, solicits the reader's favour and patronage, in a language very like the hand-bill of a country shopkeeper. He does not, however, long forget himself, but turns round again and bows to the lord mayor, who, he says, is the
very

very pink of chief magistrates; to say nothing of his *immediate successor*, who is flattered by an insinuation of the same kind. This *flummery* in the dedication introduces three successive courses of pious *water-gruel*, which, we think, is not likely to be extremely well relished by the gentlemen of the corporation, who have never yet been remarkable for their partiality to a simple diet. To speak without figure, we never have witnessed a more lame attempt to excite the feelings than is exhibited in this wretched composition, which disgraces the subject it is meant to exalt, and which renders contemptible, and even ludicrous, an event, on which all good men, if left to their own reflections, must think with regret and indignation.

A Sermon preached before the University of Cambridge, on Jan. 27, 1793. By J. Fawcett, B. D. 4to. 1s. Cadell. 1793.

Though this discourse cannot boast of unity of composition, it contains no small portion of good reasoning and judicious remark. The subject which the preacher professes to discuss is, that of *doing evil that good may come*: a position in the highest degree destructive to morality and religion, though, couched under the term *UTILITY*, it be now made the fashionable criterion of both. The instances to which the preacher particularly adverts are: *persecution for religious opinions*:—*violation of truth*:—*duelling*:—*and political conduct*. From each topick as here discussed we might cite specimens that would represent the author to advantage: under the heads of *duelling* we extract the following:

‘ The general principle, therefore, on which this ferocious practice is supported, as being founded on the nature and exigencies of polished society, is at least very disputable. And were it less so, were all the advantages, which can be hoped for, perfectly certain and secure; were the little inconveniences, which may be felt or feared from occasional petulance or rudeness, in a great degree diminished, or even totally prevented; yet surely these trifles may be purchased at too dear a rate; surely they cannot be at all compared with the serious evil, that is brought on the community, as often as it is deprived of the solid services of an active, intelligent, and virtuous individual.

‘ It deserves also to be considered, that as no interest of society can require the security of its innocent and peaceful members to be needlessly lessened, the expedience of duelling, whatever it may be, is founded on this presumption, that the person who makes the appeal to its decision, is at least generally the injured person. But if the contrary do very frequently happen, if the laws of honour be enforced on occasions confessedly frivolous, and often manifestly unjust, if they arm the man of violence whom they pretend to control, if they expose the ordinary intercourse of life to danger as well as insult, and thus aggravate the very evils they

they were intended to remedy ; then is the practice at open variance with the principle, on which it is supported. It is a cruel infringement on the dearest right of human beings ; it atones not for its particular consequences by any great and general good, and even to the attainment of its own little end, it is but seldom and by accident directed. Should however the advocate for duelling insist, that the balance of utility on the whole still inclines in his favour ; yet surely an expediency so weak and unimportant both in its nature and degree cannot be successfully, or even seriously pleaded in a cause, which nothing less than absolute and uncontrollable necessity would fully justify.

‘ Further, the practice, we are treating of, is not only thus irrational in its general principle ; and when considered with respect to the public, but with respect to individuals also, and in each particular instance, the means employed in duelling are often absolutely unconnected with any object of pursuit, that can be assigned or even imagined.

‘ To meet danger with calmness is indeed a proof of courage, but surely no test either of veracity or honour ; and, of whatever nature the injury received may be, to put the life of the aggressor and your own to the same risque, is neither reparation, nor punishment, nor revenge. It may shew, that you are not insensible, that you feel, when you are insulted ; but surely the same thing may be as naturally and as effectually shewn in many ways of less danger and of less guilt. But it will prevent such offences in future. The plea might be urged for assassination itself. If humanity shudder at the suggestion, if to destroy the life even of the guilty for such a purpose, be an enormity surpassing the common measures of human depravity ; can you think it quite rational, to hazard for the same purpose the lives of both the guilty and the innocent ?

‘ You appeal from the bar of reason to that of honour. Now so far as the general practice is concerned, the appeal to honour is totally unavailing ; for how can honour justify custom, from which alone it derives its own existence and support ? With respect to individuals indeed the opinion of the world, however fantastic, and however wrong, will always in fact possess a very considerable influence. Like the other temptations to which we are exposed, it is in proportion to its force a mitigation of the offence ; but to mitigate is not to vindicate : for if temptation be considered, not as the trial of our fortitude, but the justification of our compliance ; if custom and fashion may usurp without control the proper province of reason and conscience, there is an end of all obligation and of every virtue.

‘ And certainly if in any instance it be our duty and our wisdom to obey God rather than man, it must be in the case now before us ; where misconduct flatters us with no prospect of advantage, and

and can gratify none but the painful and hostile passions of our nature; and where the consequence must be, not only danger to ourselves, but anxiety and sorrow, it may be, distress, and misery, and ruin to the very persons, whom we are bound to protect and support by every human obligation, by interest, by duty, and even by honor itself.'

To the great and learned among Christians, the humble Petition of a Number of poor, loyal, unlearned Christians, together with plain Questions, stated for direct and unequivocal Answers, to Joseph Priestley, LL.D. F. R. S. and other the Champions of what they call Reformation. The Whole intended to represent these Innovators to public View in their true Colours. And to shew that Attachment to the Christian Religion, as recorded in the sacred Scriptures, is the best Preservative to the Peace of the State, and the Welfare of Mankind. 8vo. 1s. Rivingtons. 1793.

This attack on the religious opinions of Dr. Priestley is equally excentric and illiberal, and, far from being urged in a plain and intelligible manner, as might from the language of the title be expected, is confused, angry, and heterogeneous. We think the following short query some proof of the author's talent for dissimulation and abuse.

'Are not those who endeavour to persuade us out of our religion and our loyalty, acting perfectly consistent in endeavouring to sail under false colours, and to persuade us that instead of *their acting under Satan's commission*, there is no Satan to act under?'

The Testament of the late most Christian Majesty, Louis XVI. King of France. With short Observations by the Translator. 8vo. 2s. Nicol. 1793.

The end of the unfortunate Louis was respectable, and his misfortunes showed him to be a good, a benevolent, an honest, and an able man. Had he died a king, he might have been considered as a voluptuous glutton, almost Epicuri de Grege Porcus. His Will contains no bequests: he had, alas, nothing to bestow, but good wishes, forgiveness, and good advice. These abundantly display the goodness of his heart, while his religious principles show some bigotry, and too much credulity, even for a Catholic. The language is peculiarly simple and unaffected; often elegant.

The Inability of the Sinner to comply with the Gospel, his inexcusable Guilt in not complying with it, and the Consistency of these with each other, illustrated in two Discourses, on John vi. 44. By John Smalley, A. M. Pastor of a Church in Farmington. 8vo. 1s. Dilly. 1793.

Our author endeavours to reconcile these two points; but not satisfactorily. Inability he considers often as unwillingness, and the

the inexcusable guilt is owing in his opinion to obstinacy. The reasoning is close, and the author's intentions good; but he has not chosen a proper clue. The text admits of a very different meaning.

A Sermon preached before the Rev. the Archdeacon, and Clergy of the Archdeaconry of London, at the Visitation held in the Parish Church of Christ Church, April 27, 1793; and published by the Request of the Rev. the Archdeacon, and Others of the Clergy present. By Joseph Holden Pott, A.M. 4to. 1s. Rivingtons. 1793.

The text is from Joel i. xiv. 'Call a solemn assembly;' and the substance of the sermon relates to the assembling for public worship, and other circumstances. We can add nothing very favourable of our author's plan, or the execution of this discourse.

The Good Samaritan; or, Charity to Strangers recommended, a Sermon, preached in the Parish Church of High Wycombe, Bucks, for the French Refugee Clergy. On Sunday the 2d. of June, 1793. By the Rev. William Williams, A.B. of Worcester College, Oxford. Published by Request, and for the Benefit of the said Clergy. 8vo. 1s. Rivingtons. 1793.

The subject is mercy: the application 'charity to strangers, foreigners, priests.' This sermon deserves attention from the benevolence of the author's views, and the goodness of his heart. He rests his appeal on this foundation, and he cannot have a better. The elegance of fine writing, or the depths of controversial criticism, would have been misplaced in an address designed to speak home to the heart.

P O E T I C A L.

Descriptive Sketches in Verse. Taken during a Pedestrian Tour in the Italian, Grison, Swiss, and Savoyard Alps. By W. Wordsworth, B.A. of St. John's, Cambridge. 4to. 3s. Johnson. 1793.

The wild, romantic scenes of Switzerland have not yet been celebrated by an English poet; and its uncultivated beauties, which of themselves inspire the most sublime and poetical ideas, which suggest the terrible graces of rude rocks, majestic waterfalls, the abrupt cleft, and the seeming tempestuous sea arrested by the tor-pifying power of frost into the bold glaciére, seem to have been surveyed by few of the poetic race,

— Cui mens diviniior atque os
Magna sonaturam.

The objection is scarcely removed. Mr. Wordsworth has caught few sparks from these glowing scenes. His lines are often harsh

and

and prosaic; his images ill-chosen, and his descriptions feeble and insipid.

The Introduction is almost unintelligible, or, if intelligible, conveys only a vague, seemingly an inaccurate idea.

' Were there, below, a spot of holy ground,
By Pain and her sad family unfound,
Sure, Nature's God that spot to man had giv'n,
Where murmuring rivers join the song of ev'n!
Where falls the purple morning far and wide
In flakes of light upon the mountain-side;
Where summer suns in ocean sink to rest,
Or moonlight upland lifts her hoary breast;
Where Silence, on her night of wing, o'er-broods
Unfathom'd dells and undiscover'd woods;
Where rocks and groves the power of waters shakes
In cataracts, or sleeps in quiet lakes.'

The following description of the Lake Como is in our author's best style; yet it has many of the faults already mentioned:

' More pleas'd my foot the hidden margin roves
Of Como bosom'd deep in chefnut groves.
No meadows thrown between the giddy steeps
Tower, bare or sylvan, from the narrow deeps.
To towns, whose shades of no rude sound complain,
To ringing team unknown and grating wain,
To flat-roof'd towns, that touch the water's bound,
Or lurk in woody sunless glens profound,
Or from the bending rocks obtrusive cling,
And o'er the whiten'd wave their shadows fling;
Wild round the steeps the little pathway twines,
And Silence loves its purple roof of vines.
The viewless lingerer hence, at evening, sees
From rock-hewn steps the sail between the trees;
Or marks, mid opening cliffs, fair dark-ey'd maids
Tend the small harvest of their garden glades,
Or, led by distant warbling notes, surveys,
With hollow ringing ears and darkening gaze,
Binding the charmed soul in powerless trance,
Lip-dewing song, and ringlet-tossing dance,
Where sparkling eyes and breaking smiles illumine
The bosom'd cabin's lyre-enliven'd gloom;
Or stops the solemn mountain-shades to view
Stretch, o'er their pictur'd mirror, broad and blue,
Tracking the yellow sun from steep to steep,
As up th' opposing hills, with tortoise foot, they creep.'

The next passage we shall select is more characteristic of the author's general manner.

' A giant moan along the forest swells
 Protracted, and the twilight storm foretells,
 And, ruining from the cliffs their deafening load
 Tumbles, the wildering Thunder slips abroad;
 On the high summits Darkness comes and goes,
 Hiding their fiery clouds, their rocks, and snows;
 The torrent, travers'd by the lustre broad,
 Starts like a horse beside the flashing road;
 In the roof'd bridge, at that despairing hour,
 She seeks a shelter from the battering show'r.
 —Fierce comes the river down; the crashing wood
 Gives way, and half its pines torment the flood;
 Fearful, beneath, the water-spirits call,
 And the bridge vibrates, tottering to its fall.'

We have not room for numerous extracts, and shall therefore conclude with some lines, which possess both the merit of glowing, but incorrect description, and the harshness, which is too prevalent through the whole poem.

' Mid stormy vapours ever driving by,
 Where ospreys, cormorants, and herons cry,
 Where hardly giv'n the hopeless waste to chear,
 Deny'd the bread of life the foodful ear,
 Dwindles the pear on autumn's latest spray,
 And apples sicken pale in summer's ray,
 Ev'n here Content has fix'd her smiling reign
 With Independance child of high Disdain.
 Exulting mid the winter of the skies,
 Shy as the jealous chamois, Freedom flies,
 And often grasps her sword, and often eyes,
 Her crest a bough of Winter's bleakest pine,
 Strange "weeds" and alpine plants her helm entwine.'

Verses on the beneficial Effects of Inoculation, which obtained one of the Chancellor's Prizes at the University of Oxford in the Year 1772. By the Rev. W. Lipscomb, A. M. Now republished by the Author's Permission, at the Request of the House Committee of Governors of the Small-Pox and Inoculation Hospitals, for the Benefit of that Charity; and gratuitously recited at the Anniversary Festival at the London Tavern, on Monday the 25th February, 1793, by Mr. J. Palmer, of the King's Theatre, Haymarket.
 4to. 1s. Johnson. 1793.

When our readers are informed that this short composition was originally an Oxford prize poem, they will probably conclude that

that the versification is decent, and if they have read many of these compositions, which are written *invita Minerva*, they may possibly conjecture it is nothing more. We have only, therefore, for our parts, to bear testimony to the sagacity of their conclusions in both these propositions.—The following lines, in which he describes the small-pox, are a fair specimen of the poem :

‘ As when his empire sultry Cancer gains
The scorching whirlwinds scour along the plains,
The stately tamarisk and graceful pine
Shrink from the blast, and all their charms resign,
The bright anana’s gaudy bloom is fled,
The sickening orange bows her languid head ;
So spread destruction at the tyrant’s nod,
And Beauty’s blossom wither’d where he trod ;
The God of love in silent anguish broke
His blunted arrows, and his useless yoke,
Aside for grief he threw his loosen’d bow,
And trembling fled before the impetuous foe.’

An Epistle to the Right Hon. Charles James Fox. 4to. 1s. 6a.
Debrett. 1793.

Although, as is predicted by the author, we have not found in these lines, ‘ the force of Flaccus, nor the strains of Pope,’ we think them not entirely destitute of poetical beauty. We must remark, however, that the composition of this Epistle, as well as of that to the duke of Portland, which is annexed, though not mentioned in the title, is neither bold nor interesting, but written in a strain that is more suitable to the softer themes of poetry than the celebration of patriotic virtue.

D R A M A T I C.

The Pad, a Farce, in one Act, as performed at the Théâtre Royal, with great Applause. 8vo. 1s. Parsons. 1793.

The author has taken advantage of an absurd fashion to put hastily together a temporary entertainment. We know not what effect the Pad may have had in representation, but certainly it never merited to be committed to the press. It is almost destitute of plot, and entirely so of character and wit.

The Carthusian Friar ; or, the Age of Chivalry. A Tragedy, in Five Acts, founded on real Events. Written by a Female Refugee. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Owen. 1793.

This play, in its whole conduct, is erroneous : in a more skillful, probably a more practised hand, the story might have been

interesting and affecting. Yet the mechanical play-wright, who could plan the business of the drama with precision, would not probably have reached the pathetic language, the poetical excellencies of the Female Refugee. Many passages of this play have interested us greatly, and we shall beg leave to cull a few flowers from the parterre. The following description of the widowed mother, who nourishes a secret grief, is scarcely inferior to that of the Mysterious Mother in the MS. play of Mr. Walpole, which we almost think was in our author's view.

St. Clair. Then all research is vain ;
At least I much despair of the discov'ry,
For from Eugenia's lips 'twill ne'er escape.
Cold, fullen, inaccessible to all,
She only holds dark converse with herself,
And measures her existence by her griefs,
Griefs that extinguish ev'ry social sense :
For not the sight of that engaging youth,
The gentle, yet the noble-minded Rochford,
Can charm her soul, or from her steal one smile :
Sometimes, methinks, she flies at his approach,
And sometimes, softened by his duteous care,
If she consent to grant one kind embrace,
Instant her swelling heart flows fast in tears,
That else wou'd burst with renovated pain !
What this can mean creates my utmost wonder.'

The description we shall next transcribe is also highly beautiful.

Roch. O moment interwoven with joy and misery !
Dost thou then love me, yet deny me, Juliet ?
Thy beating heart, thy beauteous down-cast eyes,
That on thy bosom show'r such crystal drops,
(Bidding it mock the lily wet with dew)
All tell me I am not unfavour'd there !
Yield then, unblushing, to their tender plea,
Nor rend thy gentle soul with all this strife.
Who will applaud (if that be thy sole aim)
When thou hast cast love's choicest gifts aside :
Is it thy aged father ?—Surely not :
For thou canst rescue him from painful toil
By thy compliance. Is it thy own heart ?
Ah ! thou deceiv'st thyself too tender Juliet !
When I am gone, will no soft wishes stray—'

We shall conclude with a passage in a very different style, which almost equals the sublime energy of the author of the Mourning Bride in the description, so highly commended by Dr. Johnson.

SCENE

‘ SCENE III. *A Chapel in St. Michael’s Church.*

‘ *A Silver Lamp pendant from the Dome ; a Mausoleum on the right, near the back Scene.*

‘ *Enter Rochford from the opposite Side.*

‘ Hail, hallow’d roof!—Hail, sad abode of sorrow !
 Long consecrated for her habitation,
 ‘Thou only know’st the accents of distress !
 ‘The dreary echo of thy vaulted dome,
 And that bleak howling thro’ the hollow isle,
 Freeze my slow beating heart with sacred terror ;
 An universal dampness reigns around me !
 ‘The massy pillars ev’n distil moist streams,
 As the hard stones wept at the sight of Rochford !
 Ah ! does this gloom presage some dire discovery ?
 She comes not yet — no footsteps bend this way ;
 But as I tread, the very arches ring !
 ‘Tis here, till now in solitude secure,
 She pours the anguish of her soul to heav’n :
 What if I hid me silently to watch
 Her undisguis’d emotions when alone ?’

A Friend to Old England. By Edward Eyre, Esq. 4to. 2s.
 Harlow. 1793.

This *Friend to Old England* has written an invective in rhyme, which he calls a poem, and which he tells us he did not originally intend to publish ; but his friends having assured him his effusions would be particularly serviceable at the present juncture, with most patriotic eagerness he posted with them to the Minerva Press, and hopes the public will be merciful in their criticisms, from a view of their *allowed general utility*. It is proper, however, the public should be apprised, that, if they shew themselves thus good-natured on the present occasion, he has more effusions of verse and prose, moral, comic, and satirical, ready to pour out upon them. In the mean time let us examine what we have got—

‘ Some o’er the rest in intellects must tower,’

says the author ; very true, indeed ! and if none but these towering geniuses were to take upon them to instruct mankind, our task would be more agreeable. We allow this therefore to be a truth of general utility, if people would but attend to it. — But here comes a maxim worthy of being engraved in marble over our fire-places—

‘ Were wives against their husbands to rebel,
 Each family would prove a perfect hell.’

The author proceeds to break his lance against the French atheists, the windmills of the present day, and, in the effusions

of his loyalty towards crowned heads, laments, with an amiable naiveté, that,

‘ In times like these, the worthiest, best of kings,
Alas! are deem’d expensive, useless things’—

We doubt, however, whether his expression is perfectly decorous in this remark; he puts us in mind of the clumsy friendship of a well-meaning bear, who, the fable tells us, gave his friend a great slap on the face in order to crush a teasing fly which had settled on his forehead.—We shall only quote one more sentiment, to the truth of which we cordially subscribe, whatever our readers may think of the poetry—

‘ Whate’er the form of government, or name,
When grown corrupt, they all are much the same;
In most European states, as in our own,
If once mankind, at large, are venal grown,
Tho’ some we regal, some republic call,
Abuses, much alike, are found in all;
Hence wisdom teaches, patient to endure
Those temporal evils, which admit no cure,
Since by example, ’tis too plainly shewn,
Calamity can work that cure alone.’

MISCELLANEOUS.

Curtius rescued from the Gulph; or, the Retort courteous to the Rev. Dr. Parr, in answer to his learned Pamphlet, intitled ‘ A Sequel,’ &c. 8vo. 1s. Hookham and Carpenter. 1792.

This publication contains a tolerable portion of pedantry, but withal, a most plentiful lack of wit.

A Sequel to the Adventures of Baron Munchausen. Humbly dedicated to Mr. Bruce, the Abyssinian Traveller. (With Twenty capital Copper-Plates, including the Baron’s Portrait.) 12mo. 3s. 6d. sewed. Symonds. 1792.

We are accustomed to view with some suspicion the *sequel* of any work, whether valuable or not, which has the reputation of being extensively read; and we find our prepossession not ill-grounded in the present instance. This volume is equally extravagant and preposterous with its predecessor, and possesses all its absurdity, with scarcely an equal share of its pleasantries. The well-known author of some wonderful adventures in an eastern country is more particularly alluded to in it, and the leading subjects are delineated in copper-plates, which, indeed, are more amusing than the detail of the baron’s adventures, which are, throughout, of a very flimsy and contemptible manufacture.

Observa-

Observations on the State of the English Prisons, and the Means of improving them; communicated to the Rev. Henry Zouch, a Justice of the Peace, by the Right Hon. Lord Loughborough, now Lord High Chancellor of Great Britain. Published at the Request of the Court of Quarter Sessions, held at Pontefract, April the 8th, 1793. 4to. 1s. Stockdale. 1793.

These observations do great honour to their noble author and to the parties, who, with so much propriety, have occasioned their appearance in print. We think them particularly worthy the attention of magistrates of every description, and are persuaded they will have the effect of facilitating that reform in the state of our prisons, which, though happily begun in many quarters of the kingdom, is very far from being compleat.

The History of the Antiquity and present State of London, &c. By John Mazzinghi, English and French. 8vo. 5s. Boards. Dilly. 1793.

We are informed by the author, in his Preface, that he has added many new things to the former edition of this book in 1785; and that he has introduced a French translation to serve as a guide to foreigners. Neither the language of the English text, nor of the French translation, appears to us to have much claim to praise. In the English, p. 12, we find 'Tentat, or Mercur,' for Tentates, or Mercury. Among the old Britons, p. 20, 'every tribe became a separate government, divided into 28 provinces!' 'The men had 10 or 12 wives a piece!' p. 22. 'Of the Frith of Glota, now called Dunbritton.' p. 46. 'The Scots, by some called Caledonians' p. 48. 'It is cited,' p. 50, for situated. 'Various are the names which were conferred to this metropolis; the first whereof Tacitus called it Londinium,' p. 54. 'Islington in London!' p. 58, 'and Knightsbridge, Kennington, and Newington Buts.' p. 60. 'This church has two bells, and contains 359 houses,' p. 82; and a constant repetition of the same solecisms. A plague broke out in India, and was brought to London; and to shew the desolation it occasioned, our learned author gives, p. 176, the state of provisions in 1348, in fact the common progressive value of the time. 'An exhibition of framed prints, called the Shakspeare Gallery,' p. 288. 'The landing-place at the top of Blackfriars-bridge,' p. 348. The Spanish Armada 'never had one good night,' p. 414. Such are a few of the ridiculous errors of this work. The lists may, however, be useful to foreigners; and, what is remarkable, the French translation corrects some of the mistakes. We rather, indeed, suspect the English to be a bad translation from the French.

A Trip to Holy-Head in a Mail Coach, with a Churchman and a Dissenter, in the Year 1793. 8vo. 2s. Debrett. 1793.

We have seldom experienced more rational entertainment in any vehicle, than is to be found in the narrative of the present Trip

to Holy-Head. The company consists of a lady and three gentlemen, one of whom is a clergyman of the church of England, and another a Dissenter. The conversation, maintained almost entirely by the two latter, and chiefly the person last mentioned, relates to the Toleration Act, passed in 1689; the Enlargement of that Act, in 1779, the American War; the Question of a Reform; the late Applications for a Repeal of the Corporation and Test-laws; and the French Revolution. A concise, clear, and apparently unprejudiced account of these several subjects is delivered; with a degree of judgment which merits commendation, and of uncommonly good humour, which evinces the candour of the intelligent and agreeable disputants.

A new Introduction to Reading: or, a Collection of easy Lessons, arranged on an improved Plan; calculated to acquire with Ease a Fluency of Speech, and to facilitate the Improvement of Youth. Designed as an Introduction to the Speaker. The second Edition, with great Additions. Compiled by the Publisher. 12mo. 1s. Bound, Sael. 1793.

The Introduction consists of lessons, compiled from different works, and these not always judiciously chosen for a beginner.

Major Hook's Defence to the Action of criminal Conversation, brought against him by Capt. Charles Campbell, and tried at Westminster, 26 Feb. 1793. 8vo. 2s. 6d. sewed. Murray. 1793.

An advertisement prefixed informs us, that this Defence contains observations upon the testimony of the witnesses, and on a variety of evidence contained in affidavits and letters. We shall not enter much into this delicate subject, but it appears to us that, though the major's Defence may not be found to amount to a complete exculpation, yet by evincing the malicious and revengeful falsehood of some of the witnesses, and the palpable error of some others, not to mention radical mistakes in facts, such as that capt. Campbell was on good terms with his wife, he has considerably abated the force of the evidence; and, if he is to be blamed, it must be with a mixture of compassion for singular situations, and human frailty.

An Appeal to Justice and true Liberty; or, an accurate Statement of the Proceedings of the French towards the Republic of Geneva. 8vo. 2s. 6d. Debrett. 1793.

The conduct of the Genevese has appeared as suspicious; nor is it surprising to find even the most determined of men yielding, for a time, to a storm, or the wisest bending to the efforts of a faction, until able effectually to resist it. M. Roveray is a strenuous advocate for his countrymen, examines their conduct fully, and defends it. This little state has been always an interesting object in the eyes of the political enquirer. Their late conduct has been consistent with the general steadiness of the whole, and we may add, with the irregularity of a few.



A P P E N D I X

TO THE

EIGHTH VOLUME

OF THE

NEW ARRANGEMENT

OF THE

CRITICAL REVIEW.

FOREIGN ARTICLES.

Memoires de l'Academie des Sciences & Belles Lettres a Bruxelles. Tom V. 4to. Bruxelles.

Memoirs of the Academy of Sciences and Belles Lettres at Brussels.

IT is, at this time, not only necessary to attend with peculiar care to those societies who collect their memoirs, but to catch the ray of science floating in the turbulent expanse, which circumstances do not admit of being collected into a focus. The Memoirs of the Academy of Brussels have seldom reached us regularly; and, for that reason, they have not made a part of our usual collection from the continent. At present, we must be less nice, and, like famished wretches, devour indiscriminately on account of scarcity, or pick up, in a miscellaneous way, what, probably, may never reach us in any other form. Though the copies of these Memoirs used to occur frequently in Germany, we find, probably from the late confusions in the Netherlands, that they are exceedingly scarce. It was with difficulty that we were able to procure one, and shall, on that account, be a little more full in our analysis, though, for many reasons, we must confine ourselves to the scientific part.

‘A Memoir on the Principles to be employed, in determining, in every Instance, the Quantity of lateral Pressure of Fluids, and of Substances which gravitate like Fluids, by the Abbé Mann.’

APP. VOL. VIII. NEW. ARR.

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This is a subject of considerable importance, as the principles are constantly applicable in civil and military architecture, and particularly in what may be styled hydraulic architecture. The abbe gives some accounts of the authors, who have preceded him, and shows, that the greater number have been contented with approximations and mechanical rules, which though useful for common purposes, will often fail, and never satisfy the scientific enquirer. He first gives the propositions usually demonstrated, in elementary works. The only one, which he demonstrates as less known, we shall transcribe.— ‘The lateral pressure of fluids against the containing sides, is the subduplicate of the pressure of the same fluid, on the bottom: in other words, it is in the ratio of the base, multiplied by half the height, or of the height multiplied by half the base.’ These propositions are, however, strictly true only of fluids, without a mutual cohesion of the particles. The lateral pressure diminishes in proportion to the cohesion, and is lost when the cohesion is perfect as in solids. Earth and sand, in motion, possess for some time a kind of fluidity, though, in different degrees, according to their degree of cohesion, but their fluidity diminishes gradually, as the consistence encreases. Earth and sand, agitated, and supported by containing sides, press laterally only in part, the part comprehended between the side and a diagonal, drawn from the bottom of the side, to the surface in an angle of 45 degrees. The rest sustains itself, but, as such substances have some cohesion, the angle must vary in the same proportion. He then proceeds to those cases, where the fluidity diminishes gradually, and the cohesion increases, till the body becomes solid, and lateral pressure ceases.

To determine the quantity of force in lateral pressure, which fluids exert against the containing sides, a new principle must be added, viz. ‘that the force of the percussion of running water against walls, or other obstacles, is universally in a ratio composed of the size of the planes, opposed to the stream, of the size of the sine of the angle of incidence, and the square of the velocity of the current. The quantity of the force of percussion must be added to lateral pressure, in order to obtain the degree of resistance required.

‘A Memoir on the Laws of the Projection and Descent of heavy Bodies in Fluids in Motion, by the Abbé Mann.’

Buffon, Telliamed, (the Anagram of De Maillet) with many other authors, have attributed the formation of banks in the sea, and even mountains on land, to tides and currents of water, so that they suppose the sea to have a power of accumulating masses, which, after a series of ages, shall rise above the surface. This system, the abbe tells us, he always thought
o
absurd

absurd and groundless, though he believed that the sea might raise banks to a level with its surface. But, in his examination of the north sea, he found the banks covered with as much water, as they were, according to the marine charts, in the sixteenth century, without any sensible difference. He extended his enquiries farther, and, examining the accounts which the antients had left us of the very few banks they were acquainted with, discovered that there had been no increase in their height, for 17 or 1800 years. This astonished our author: the facts, that he had ascertained, destroyed all the systems, and it was necessary for him to examine the subject anew.

He, for this purpose, explains what substances were usually mixed with water, that might fall down, as well as what might hinder the deposition. Their own gravity, on one side, was counteracted on the other by the motion of the fluid. Heterogeneous bodies, heavier than air, are carried away by the violent motion of the wind, and fall down again, in proportion as their specific gravity counteracts the projectile motion, communicated by the medium. If the latter is uniform, bodies, in falling, describe the arc of a parabola; but the continued re-application of the projectile force, lengthens this arc, in proportion to its velocity. If the force is irregular, the arc will follow the combined powers, the projectile and the gravitating; but the elements or infinitely small parts of the arc will be parabolic. In proportion to the loss of motion in the fluid, the gravitating will overcome the projectile force, and the contrary. To apply these remarks, he observes, that, as waves are owing to the action of wind on the surface of the water, the projectile force will diminish from the surface to the bottom, in the ratio of the depth, while the gravitating force of bodies will increase in the contrary direction; so that there must be a point, where the two forces will be in æquilibrium, and this will be the greatest height of the bank. The abbe next gives the solution of the following problem — ‘The quantities of two forces, which act at the same time, on any body, in different directions, being given, if one is constantly increasing according to a given law, and the other constantly lessening, to find the point where they will be in æquilibrium and balance each other.’ — The solution depends on the differential calculus, and is expressed in a neat concise formula. Our author’s conclusion we shall transcribe: ‘I have but one reflection to make; that, if I am not mistaken in what I have said, and time will discover any error, M. Buffon’s System of the Theory of the Earth is entirely contradictory to the mechanical laws of nature.’ — We think the same, and cannot help adding, that this is one of the clearest and most satisfac-

tory applications of analytical reasoning, that we have ever seen employed in investigating the laws of nature.

'Memoir on the Law of the Evolution of the Forces of Expansion and Resistance in Bodies, by the Abbé Mann.'

Our author had, long since, given his idea of the combination and evolution of expansive and resisting forces, and has often promised to give the general formulæ to calculate their relations. This promise he has now fulfilled. Before he subjects these forces to calculation, he glances at the certainty of their existence. The forces of expansion and resistance, he observes, are conspicuous in both animal and vegetable bodies: in the mineral kingdom, they are on a larger scale, less distinctly seen, and more slow in their progress. Bodies, where these forces are most distinctly marked, it is observed, are evolved in consequence of the increase of the force of expansion, and of the decrease of the force of resistance. The force of expansion is particularly conspicuous in young animals, and that of resistance in the aged. Through all the rest of nature, the operation of these forces is equally conspicuous; and all the mechanical laws of nature, are only combinations of action and reaction, force and resistance, infinitely combined. The first of these forces is at its maximum about the beginning of the evolution, and at its minimum about the end; the second, on the contrary, is in the inverse ratio. The period, in which they balance each other, is the most perfect æra of life, and the subject of our author's calculations.

The abbe compares the evolution of expansive and resisting forces, in bodies, to the motion of bodies in a resisting medium. Each, he thinks, depends on the same law, and may be calculated on the same principles; with this difference, that the resisting force of bodies is variable in an increasing ratio, in proportion to the time of expansion, while the resistance of a fluid medium is usually supposed invariable. Besides, the resisting, in opposition to the expansive force in bodies, is in a greater ratio than the resistance of a fluid medium, in opposition to the velocity of bodies moving in it. But this, he adds, produces no change in the nature of the law observable in these two cases; and the law of the resistance of bodies, in opposition to their expansive force, is only a modification of the law of resistance of fluid media more or less dense.

After illustrating this reasoning, the abbe proceeds to explain more accurately, the principles of resistance in bodies, and the law, which it follows; the nature of the resistance of fluids without cohesion; of those, which are more or less viscid; and of substances not fluid, but possessing a certain degree of cohesion between their particles, and a positive force of resistance. He then proceeds to examine the different hypotheses

tes, with respect to the relation between the moving force, and the resistance of media; whether the resistance is in the simple ratio of the moving force, in proportion to the square of the same force, or in a ratio compounded of the square, added to the moving force itself. He supports the second hypothesis, which was that of Newton, in opposition to Leibnitz and the French mathematicians, with singular propriety and success.

The abbe next proceeds to consider the resistance arising from the cohesion of the parts of bodies, which follows other laws. This, says he, is a true positive force, constantly, but not invariably, opposing the moving or expansive force. Cohesion resembles, he adds, so many fibres, each possessing a determined force, through which the moving or expansive force endeavours to penetrate. This, therefore, must be constantly losing a part of its original force, and the whole will terminate in rest, which, in organized bodies, is styled natural death. The most simple case is, the considering these quantities as constant, but the force is sometimes variable, and gradually increases, while the expansive force decreases. This is precisely the case in nature; for the resistance of a body whose cohesion increases gradually, in proportion to the time, is only a variable force opposed to the expansive power, and whose effect is the diminution of this expansion in a greater ratio, than if the degree of cohesion had remained constant. This accelerated diminution of the active force, produced by an increasing force of resistance, is in a ratio composed of the law of the variable intensity of the last force, and of the time during which the two forces have acted on each other. On this foundation, the abbe establishes his general theory, and reduces every case and every variety, to the two following problems. 1. Any active force, beginning to expand at a given point with a given activity, against a force which resists in some ratio of this activity, to find the degree of activity of the acting force, and the space run through (the quantity of evolution of the forces) in a given time. 2. A force acts against a resisting force according to a given law, and the acting force, beginning to evolve at a given point, or instantly with a given activity, and this degree being uniformly augmented or diminished, while that of the resisting force is the same, in a contrary direction, according to given laws, to find the relations of the times, the degrees of activity, and the quantities of the evolution of the abovementioned forces.

These problems are solved also according to the differential calculus; and several corollaries are added, to apply the results to the general laws of nature; among others, to determine the instant of æquilibrium between the forces of expansion

and resistance in bodies, the instant, which is that of their greatest force and perfection. He concludes this series of abstracted reasoning with the following reflections. 'The general principle, which I have laid down in this Memoir, is certain, and capable of a rigorous demonstration. The calculations and the results are the same, so long as they can be established on certain elements. Yet, in nature, an affinity of circumstances and of obstacles, which it is impossible to be particularly acquainted with, and submit to calculation, may derange and render the evolution of the forces of expansion and resistance, in certain bodies, irregular. On this account, I consider what I have said, in the present Memoir, as the subject of pure speculation, which may indeed bring us to a more accurate knowledge of the general laws of nature, but which it is impossible always to submit in detail to a rigorous calculation.'

'Reflections on some Pieces of petrified Wood, found in the Neighbourhood of Bruges, by M. de Beunie.'

Modern lithologists are divided respecting the origin and nature of petrified wood. Some refer it to the deluge; others think that it is constantly forming: some suppose the stony matter calcareous; others flinty. Our author thinks his specimens modern; and, from their texture and whiteness, that it is the wood of the ash. Among the numerous worm-holes, some are empty, and some filled with a vitreous substance, resembling the *quartzum pingue opacum* of Wallerius. This specimen contains also numerous crystals, and some ferruginous spots; and another, after heating, was found full of red veins seemingly from iron. It was produced then, in his opinion, from a quartz matter, penetrating the pores of this spongy wood, and changing it to a stone, particularly as most authors think quartz the matrix of crystals. As neither acids nor alkalis affect it, this petrefied wood, he thinks, should be arranged among the vitrifiable stones, and the mode of production he confirms, by the appearances of quartzeous crystals in the pores. But the whole of this reasoning is very insecure. Much of the apparent vitrified wood is very certainly of mineral origin, and the source of these quartzeous crystals must be doubtful, when we consider their insoluble nature. If we admit the nature of the wood, we must have recourse to the fluor acid air for the origin of the crystals.

A physical and political Memoir on the Town and Port of Nieupoort, by the Abbe Mann.

This Memoir is of a considerable extent, containing the natural history of the city and its neighbourhood, as well as its situation and present state, particularly so far as relates to its means

means of defence in time of war, to its navigation and commerce.

In speaking of the antient state of maritime Flanders, M. Mann gives a short detail of the philosophical and political history of Nieuport, and shows, that the situation is not so unhealthy as has been supposed, or indeed as it formerly was. Various observations on the winds, on the atmosphere, the meteorological phænomena, and the causes of the diseases, which reign most commonly in this district, follow. The air of Nieuport is moist and thick, like all the rest of Flanders near the sea. The city is situated on very low ground close to the sea, so that the bosom is uncovered at the tide of ebb. There are also many canals to carry off the water, which would otherwise inundate the place, and these are sometimes dry, filled with petrifying vegetable and animal substances, highly offensive and necessarily unhealthy. Other causes of its unhealthy state are at an end, we mean the inundations round the city, by way of defence, and the consequent stench from the marine animals and vegetables, when the water dried. The last inundation was in 1745, and ten years have been usually considered as sufficient to put an end to the danger. The abbe points out the method also of rendering Nieuport as healthy as it can be; but this is a local detail of no great importance to our readers. Several remarks follow on the decreasing population of Nieuport, which has now only 2500 inhabitants, instead of the 10,000 it contained about 300 years since, when the fishery flourished, and 80 ships were annually engaged in that employment. The fishery, our author advises to be again undertaken. The first part concludes with some reflections on the character, the genius, and the manners of the inhabitants.

In the second, our author mentions its excellent situation for defence. Its sluices can deluge the country, and it commands all the neighbouring territory. At three quarters of a league distance from the sea, it cannot be insulted by ships of war, though, if it were an object to establish a marine on the coast, a basin might be constructed, forming the most convenient and securest harbour in the world. There would be twenty-four feet of water from it to the sea; while at Ostend, there is but twenty; and at Dunkirk sixteen. With respect to commerce, Nieuport is excellently situated, for by means of canals, it would unite the Lis and the Scheldt; but on this subject, and the branches of commerce which the abbe recommends, we need not enlarge.

‘A Report of the late Abbé Needham, on the Means of melting and refining Iron with Cinders.’

The use of coak in melting iron is now well understood. The abbe details the method at a length, which it would be useless to follow, and describes the best method of coaking the coal. The coal best adapted for this purpose, is that which melts in burning into a mass or cake, and whose flame is yellow. The coal which produces the violet flame makes the iron brittle, and this we now know arises from its containing the phosphoric acid.

‘Remarks on the hollow Flints, which contain Water, by the Abbé de Witry.’

Flints, it is well known, have cavities which hold water; but as philosophers could not explain the source of this water, they chose to deny the fact, and contend that the appearance was a deception, arising from the refraction of light. This is, however, by no means the case. Many flints very certainly contain water, and some curious ones are described by M. Witry. Yet this water, when in small quantities, easily disappears: neither glass nor flint will contain it without diminution; for, in the best made spirit-levels, the bubble of air gradually lengthens. We need not follow our author in his disquisitions on this subject, for we now know, that it is from the decomposition of the water, and it is probably effected by means of the light, for it decays when confined by transparent media only. How the water comes there, puzzles the abbe as much; and his account is as little satisfactory. He has recourse to volcanos, and volcanos always do wonders in the hands of nature or philosophers. We should first enquire into the formation of flint, which is by no means understood. The abbe thinks the volcanic origin would be ascertained, if the water was found to contain salts. An idle fancy! for, whatever was the result, the conclusion might be easily evaded.

‘Note of the Marquis de Chasteler, on some Roman Medals found in Hainault.’

These medals are of the third century, the oldest being a medal of Aurelius Antoninus, the most modern one of Gallienus. On the reverse of the last, is Victory marching on a globe, to which two slaves in a sitting posture are chained. Eckel, we perceive, fixes this medal to the time between the second and third consulship of Gallienus, consequently between the year 256 and 259 of our æra—The Legend is *Victoria Germanica*.

‘Note of M. Van Bochaute on the black Residium of vitriolic Æther.’

M. Bochaute found the residuum in the retort, after the distillation of æther, to be the charcoal of the oil of wine, and

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it was only necessary to separate it, in order to make it useful in various arts. The separation is effected in the following way. The residuum is poured on a filtre of glass and sand, to separate the black vitriolic acid; and afterwardsedulcorated by washing, when the result is a powder intensely black, which will serve for printers ink, painting, &c. In reality, it appears to be only a very pure charcoal; for, on following the process, the black is not more intense than that procured by Dr. Pearson, in his reduction of fixed air.

‘Essay on the sweet Oil of Vitriol, by M. Van Bochaute.’

The sweet oil of vitriol is well known; but it is not the anodyne liquor of Hoffman, or the æther of Tickle. Our author, without reason, supposes it to be the former; but, as we have declined explaining what we know on the subject, when more particularly called on, we shall only now add our author’s method of refining the oil. He examines the product of the æther at different times, and, by mixing it with water, discovers when the oil begins to come over, by the water turning milky. The oil is then separated from the water, and the yellow oil, taken off, is afterwards carefully washed.

‘Memoir on the eight grand military Roads, constructed by Marcus Vipsanius Agrippa, in the Reign of Augustus, conducted in a strait Line from the Center of Bavay, the Capital of the Nervii, to the eight principal Cities of the second Belgium, by the Abbé Bevy.’

There were eight principal roads, which went from the Circus, in the middle of Bavay, though the Itineraries mention only those of Tongres, Rheims, Cambray, and Tournay. The others are those of St. Quintin, Cassel, Gand, and Brussels, or rather of Rupelmonde, in passing by the city of Asche; where the vestiges are still observable. The two first have served as a compass to discover the others, which are not mentioned in any antient author, to compare the Roman miles with the modern measurement, and to ascertain the position of the forts and towns of antiquity, as well as those of the middle ages.

Having found, at the village of Quarte (so called on account of its being the fourth limit of Bavay, on the borders of the great road from Bavay to Rheims) the base of a military column, our author measured the distance from the center at Bavay, and found it 4144 toises, from whence he concluded, that the Roman mile contained 1036 French toises:—he should have said more strictly, the antient mile of the Gauls, which contained 1500 paces. The abbe next mentions the vestiges of the different cities and forts, and from thence supports his measurement. He afterwards describes the formation of the
Roman

Roman roads, and the construction of their different strata. We shall transcribe the inscription, which he found near the village of Quarte on the Sambre, according to his own exposition.

‘Imperator C. Julius, Divi Julii filius, Cæsar Augustus, Consul XI. Tribunitia Potestate X. Pater Patriæ. Vias & Milliaria per Marcum Vipsanum Agrippam Præfectum Clafis, Proconsulem Nerviorum, & Præsidem Provinciæ Galliæ-Belgiæ, construxit ad quartum hunc ante passuum CCXXXIII templum Nympharum poni curavit.’

From different enquiries, and comparing the evidences of medals of the Fasti and antient monuments, our author fixes the date of this inscription to the month of February, An. 741 Ab urbe Condita, twelve years before the Christian æra, the 30th year of the reign of Augustus, in the consulate of Tiberius Claudius Nero, and of Quintilius Publius Varus.

‘Memoir on the Effects of antiseptic Fomentations in putrid Fevers, by Dr. Godart.’

This Memoir begins with a case of a woman labouring under a most putrid malignant fever, who was cured by warm baths. He then speaks of ten or twelve persons attacked with a malignant purpura, who were cured by general fomentations, applied in bed, bathing the whole body with a sponge dipped in spirit of wine, or camphorated spirit of wine, and putting on, every four hours, shirts dipped in warm water, in which nitre was dissolved, in the proportion of half an ounce to every quart. This method is said to have been useful; but we must rest on the fact: the author’s reasoning is trifling and fallacious. He next mentions the method of purifying the air of hospitals, which was effected by suffering the muriatic acid to evaporate, and oxygenating it, by adding the vitriolic. But these acid airs injured and destroyed every vessel of tin, copper, or iron, within their reach. In reply to the question, whether the upper or lower parts of the windows should be opened to purify the air of the wards; he decides, contrary to the opinion of M. M. Maret, Bannau, and Turban, in favour of the upper, because the air is inflammable. But we now know, that it is the heavy inflammable air, and the ventilation should be carried on near the floor, as the evaporation from washing will not free from miasmata.

‘Memoir by M. Van Bochaute on the internal Use of the vitriolic Acid.’

Our author is greatly afraid of the frequent, or constant, use of the spirit of vitriol, as it will decompose the various neutral salts in the body, and form an insoluble gypsum. He has not however shown, that it can produce even these mischiefs beyond the primæ viæ, as it is never absorbed uncombined,

bined, and even then in the form of an undissolved earth. These are the terrors of a theorist.

'Abstract of Observations made on medical Electricity, from 1784 to 1788, by Means of an electrical Machine, simplified for medical Purposes, by the Abbé de Witry.'

The abbe has already described his machine; and, in his hands it seems to have been very efficacious. In fixed rheumatism, he thinks it has been useful, particularly when carried so far as to raise pimples on the skin. Flying rheumatisms and apoplexies have not yielded with equal facility. In palsies, particularly local palsies, it seems to have done some good. In epilepsies and guttæ serenæ, it has sometimes been successful: in our author's own case, which was rheumatic, perhaps gouty, it appeared useful.

Compte rendu au Ministre de la Guerre, par le Lieut. Gen. A. Dillon, &c.

An Account rendered in to the Minister of War, by Lieut. Gen. A. Dillon, Commander of the Army of the Ardennes—accompanied by justificatory Pieces; and containing Military Details, the Knowledge of which is necessary to understand the most interesting Part of the memorable Campaign of 1792. Paris, 1792.

THIS is a very important pamphlet; and as we believe very few copies of it have been introduced into this country, we shall endeavour to exhibit a short abstract of its contents. It contains a journal of the proceedings of the army of the Ardennes under the command of general Dillon, from the 27th Aug. to 15th Oct. with several documents in his justification.

General Dillon left Valenciennes on the 27th of August, by the order of gen. Dumourier, and arrived at Sedan on the 29th. On the 30th the commander assembled a council of war. In this council, as it was found impossible to face an army of Prussians, amounting to 55,000, supported by 16,000 Austrians, with an immense body of Hessians, emigrants, and Austrians behind, while the army of Luckner was only 15,000; it was proposed by a bold effort to penetrate the Netherlands, and draw off the invading army. Both Dumourier and Dillon were of this opinion, but it was over-ruled. M. Galbaud had been previously detached to the relief of Verdun; but that was found impracticable, the place being completely blocked up by the enemy. At this time general Dillon requested the command of the van guard, which was acceded to by Dumourier.

The 31st, the commander in chief thought of disputing the passage of the bridge of Stenay, and dispatched general Dillon

on this service, who however found it impossible to defend that post; but endeavoured to deceive the enemy by taking a good position at Neuville, a quarter of a league distant. While his van guard encamped there to cover his retreat, a smart skirmish took place between his light infantry and that of the enemy. He saw at a distance Clairfait take possession of Stenay, and shortly after, he was joined by the national guard of that place, who continued to serve with him to the end of the campaign. He however made good his retreat by way of Neuville to Beaumont. In the skirmish the Austrians lost 30 men, and the French (who fought under cover of a wood) only two.

Nothing of importance occurred till the 3d Sept. when general Dillon with the van guard encamped at Cornay, and the army of Dumourier at the since famous post of Grandpré. At this time Dillon received advice from general Galbaud, that he had taken post near Biesmes, not having been able to throw himself into Verdun.

On the 4th of September, the little army of France might be considered as in a most critical state, its whole force not being equal to the single division of Clairfait. It was a great oversight in the Austrian general to suffer Dumourier to take possession of the post at Senuc, in the pass of Grandpré, without attacking him. A still greater error was committed by the duke of Brunswick, in neglecting the important pass at Biesmes, while he was master of Clermont. Dumourier therefore conceived the bold project of retaining his own position in the pass of Grandpré, and detaching general Dillon to seize that of Biesmes, which, after passing by the Prussian army near Varennes, he was fortunate enough to effect; and on this very much of the success of the campaign depended, as the enemy was never able afterwards to dislodge him.

From this to the 11th, nothing particular occurred. On that day the general learned that the duke of Brunswick, after much indecision, being convinced that it was impossible to force a passage by the way of Biesmes, had determined to march upon Grandpré. On the 13th, Dumourier being informed of the approach of the enemy, sent a positive order to general Dillon to dispatch to him all the succours he could possibly dispense with. The general in consequence dispatched 2410 men, 742 of whom were cavalry, with half a company of artillery. He expected himself to be hourly attacked, and dispatched couriers to Luckner and Kellerman to hasten their march. On the 14th they heard at Biesmes a violent cannonade, and the general was extremely anxious for the fate of Dumourier, as, should he be forced from Grandpré, the post at Biesmes was certain to be attacked.—In this case he would have

have endeavoured to gain the wood of Belleval, in hopes of making good his retreat to Bar.

On the 15th, he learned that general Dumourier had raised his camp at Grandpré, and that his rear had been attacked by the enemy at noon, and put in dreadful disorder. On the 17th he discovered the enemy, to the amount of 3000 infantry, and four squadrons of cavalry, in motion towards Biesmes. The Austrians soon attacked them with howitzers and grenades, but did not come to a close engagement, and when the French leaped out of their entrenchments to attack them, they retreated with precipitation.

The 20th of September was the day of the grand attack. At this period general Kellerman had joined Dumourier; and general Dillon mentions, with peculiar commendation, the famous manœuvre of that officer, who in the face of a superior force, and after a most violent cannonade, which endured the whole day, took a position which presented to the enemy on every side an unassailable front. At the same time general Dillon learned that he was himself to be attacked, and as he saw a large body in motion, he expected the assault would be more serious than that of the 17th. It ended, however, in the Austrians throwing, as usual, into the entrenchments, some grenades, and in a distant discharge of their artillery. The French general sent a detachment along the wood to take the columns of the enemy in flank, in order to force them to action, but in vain. He then pursued them as far as Clermont, with two battalions and four pieces of cannon; but night coming on interrupted the pursuit.

From this time to the 24th Sept. was an interval of inaction; at that period the position of the Prussian army, which at La Lune interrupted the road from Chalons, alarmed the French army on the score of procuring subsistence. Their supplies were all from Chalons, and it was now necessary to bring them by a round-about course by the way of Vetry. The road from this place to St. Mencholt was detestable—general Dillon therefore proposed to Dumourier to send the workmen, who had been employed on the entrenchments at Biesmes, to repair the road, which they did very effectually, and in consequence of this the French were well supplied, while their enemies were six days without bread.

During the six following days the famous conferences took place between the Prussian generals and Dumourier. — On the 29th general Dillon learned that great dissensions prevailed between the Austrians and Hessians encamped at Clermont, and that they reciprocally accused each other of the cowardly attack upon Biesmes. On the 30th they found that the Prussians had decamped from La Lune.

On the 1st of October, the little army which had occupied the post at Biesmes from the 5th of September, decamped; and learning that a considerable body of Hessians had passed on the way towards Rarecourt, the general determined immediately to pursue them. He came up with them between the villages of Autrecourt and Fleury, and gave them a total defeat, with the loss of only one hussar. On the 2d the Hessians broke up their camp at Clermont, and retreated with the Austrians towards Verdun; and from that day to the 4th, the French generals were occupied in the pursuit of the flying enemy.

"I am now," continues the general, "arrived at an epoch where a step, that I had believed dictated by prudence and policy, and permitted as a stratagem of war, has been blamed, and represented as exceeding the powers confided to a general. Some preliminary reflections upon the position in which I was then placed, and a simple narration of facts, will, I believe, suffice to disperse all doubts, and to prove, even to demonstration, the purity of my intentions. When general Dumourier saw, on the 30th September, the duke of Brunswick and the king of Prussia shamefully raise their camp from La Lune, to perform a retrograde march, he then judged that the French republic had nothing to fear from the Prussian army. He was informed that they were desolated by sickness; he knew the frightful state of the roads by which they must pass, and he was perfectly assured that an army, still very numerous, particularly in cavalry, could not attempt to winter in a country, the provisions of which had been equally devoured by that army and by ours, before the beginning of the campaign, and which possessed only two fortified places, the one of which was in a very bad condition. He had reason then to re-assure the French people, and to say to them, that very soon the foreign armies would evacuate their territories. This assurance was necessary, to avoid the disapprobation which he must have incurred for the bold and judicious march by which, in abandoning the Prussians, he had flown to the succour of the department of the north. It appears that at Paris the people had considered the events *announced only* by Dumourier, as if they had been already consummated; that they believed it would be sufficient only to present themselves before the Prussians, to make them lay down their arms, though they were uninformed of their number, of that of their allies, or of what troops of the republic still existed to oppose them. It is necessary then to trace back facts: general Bournonville, whom they will not accuse of timidity, harassed the Prussian rear guard almost as far as Buzancy; but he has said himself, in the accounts that he has given to Dumourier, that the Prussians made before him a most excellent retreat; and that he could
not,

not, with the forces he had, attack them; but could only do them what mischief he had in his power. Neither Kellerman nor Vallence, who succeeded Bournonville in this part, could, any more than he, cut off the Prussian army, nor hinder them from retiring entirely by Dun, and thence towards Verdun, beyond the Meuse.

"What then was my position? Kellerman and Vallence were the 4th of October at Autry, and Buzancy at more than fourteen leagues from me. I marched, during two days, directly towards Verdun with less than 16,000 men, notwithstanding my reunion with Labaroliere. With this little army, I dared on the 5th completely to encircle Verdun upon two sides, even to the Meuse. With this army I attacked the posts of the Austrian and Hessian armies encamped before Verdun, on this side of the Meuse, and made them give way, though they amounted to the number of more than 20 000 men, without comprehending the Prussian garrison in the city, or the whole Prussian army encamped in several places from Consenvoy even to Mont Saint Michel, above Verdun, and beyond the Meuse. I had near 60,000 enemies before me. I hoped, it is true, after the disagreement which I knew reigned amongst the allies, that the Prussian army would not pass the Meuse, to come to the succour of the Austrians. In this conjuncture, should I not have rendered a great service to the Republic, if, dividing the Hessians from the Austrians, I had been able to find myself an equal match with the latter, and accordingly have beaten them in the presence even of their allies? On the 4th I intercepted at Clermont a letter from the director of the district of Etain to the landgrave of Hesse, which was dated the first October, and informed me, amongst other things, that he was expected with his quartermaster-general at Etain. I sent immediately the next morning a courier to general Favart at Metz, with the letter *, N^o 15.

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* The following is the letter to the landgrave of Hesse, referred to by general Dillon on this occasion:

"I have the honour to send to your highness of Hesse Cassel, lieutenant Lindau: it may be judged by the proof that I have given to this officer (by the marshal de Camp Galbaud) that the French nation, always great, always generous, knows how to appreciate a good action, and to esteem valour even in its enemies.

"I seize this occasion to offer to your highness some reflections dictated by humanity and reason.

"It cannot be contradicted that a nation, taken collectively, has a right to chuse such a form of government as appears most agreeable to itself; that consequently the will of no individual can destroy its energy. Free, independent for ever, the French nation has resumed its rights, and has chosen to change its form of government. Such is the state of affairs in France.

"His highness of Hesse Cassel leads into France a body of troops; as a prince he sacrifices his subjects for a cause unknown to himself; as a soldier he ought

"All may judge, upon reading it, whether I had an intention of sparing the Hessians. I learned with certainty at Clermont, that the Hessians and the Austrians were upon extremely bad terms; that they reciprocally accused each other of treason; that this had been carried so far, that the Austrians had raised their camp a day before, without informing the Hessians of it, who considered themselves as given up and sacrificed, when they learned my attack upon Autrecourt. I was assured also, that the landgrave, in his wrath, had loudly testified the desire of finding an occasion which might *force him to separate himself from the Austrians*. Behold now the motives which gave me the first idea of writing to him, in order to augment the terror with which he was struck, and to endeavour in dividing him from the Austrians, to fall upon the latter. The project of my letter was not a secret. I had spoken openly of it, to my quartermaster-general: I had read aloud my first intention. General Galbaud, whose principles could not be suspected, assisted me to compose the letter that I sent; it was written from Domballe, and not from Clermont, as has been erroneously said. The sending back of lieutenant Lindau, approved elsewhere by Dumourier, served only as a pretext to send him accompanied by Gobert, my adjutant-general; and what is much more, an officer of great ability. As to the phraseology of this letter, with which they have reproached me, it is evident that it was only a feint, and that I proposed as a favour what it was not in my power to prevent. I knew besides, that the Prussian army would secure the retreat of the Hessians. Now, though I should have used an unnecessary expression, am I for that culpable? Above all, when I did not wait the return of my adjutant-general, in order to cannonade the Hessians briskly for twelve hours after, as may be seen in the detail of the day of the 5th."

It was upon the score of this last transaction, that the general on the 15th was superseded. The French, however, in this, only acted towards general Dillon as they have to all their most meritorious officers. From all their late proceed-

to perceive the situation in which he is. It is dangerous for himself; he is surrounded. I propose to him to retrace to-morrow morning the road to his own country, to evacuate the French territories. I will procure him the means of safely passing through the French armies, which have rendered themselves masters of many places through which his road necessarily lies. This proposal is frank, and I demand a categorical and formal answer to it. The French republic excuses an error, but it knows how to revenge without mercy the invasion and the pillaging of its territory.

"I dispatch you this letter by M. Gobert, my adjutant-general, who will wait for your reply; the case is urgent, for I am ready to march.

"The lieutenant-general, commanding an army of the French republic."

"Signed. A. DILLON."

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ings indeed we cannot otherwise explain their conduct than by supposing that the prevailing party in the convention have been actually in the interest of the combined powers.

*Doctrina Numorum Veterum conscripta à Josepho Eckhel, The-
sauro Cæsareo Numorum, Gemmarumque Veterum, et rei An-
tiquariæ in Universitate Vindobonensi docendæ præfecto. Pars
I. de Numis Urbium, Populorum Regum. Volumen I. con-
tinens Prolegomena generalia, tum Numos Hispaniæ, Galliæ,
Britanniæ, Germaniæ, Italiæ cum Insulis. 4to. Vindo-
bonæ. 1792.*

THE book which we here announce, hath been long the desideratum of Europe. Its accomplished author, who had acquired by his numismatic writings the highest reputation, exhibited in 1786, a description of the coins of Antioch in Syria, as a specimen of the present production.

The Preface, which both to that work and to this, is nearly the same, assigns for the reason of his entering upon the task, that the plans of those who had attempted it before him, were either never executed, or, if executed, were so defective, as not to answer their end.

After a brief revision of these several undertakings, and others of a relative kind; together with a statement of the many discoveries which later times had supplied, the abbé, availing himself of every resource, sat down to supply, what was wanted so much, a proper introduction to the science of coins.

Accordingly, the various materials which he had been several years in accumulating, whether for private use, or for public instruction, were applied by him to effect his design. The rules he prescribed to himself in the choice and explanation of his matter, as well as the distribution and order adopted, he thus proceeds to explain.

I. No admission is given to any coins, but such as have either passed under his immediate inspection, or that of authors on whose testimony he could safely rely.

II. Lest a work of so copious a nature should extend itself too far, brevity is a leading consideration in the choice of its contents.

III. This brevity, nevertheless, is not to be understood as excluding any thing but what is really useless and superfluous.

The whole work is divided into two parts; the first, to contain coins of cities, nations, and kings; the second, coins of Rome, whether free, or under emperors. Introductory to both, are

prefixed general prolegomena, which comprehend the rudiments at large of the science of medals.

The order of the first part is altogether geographical, beginning with Hispania Lusitana, and ending with Numidia in Africa; so as that the kings of each country may be placed under the titles of their respective dominions.

The second part, or Roman money, begins with the confular coins, under which denomination is included as well weights of brass, as whatever remains of Roman money, of every metal and size whilst Rome was free, and having no other inscription than ROMA. These will be followed by coins of families, to which will succeed those of Rome imperial, from Julius Cæsar to the Palæologi.

At the end of each part will be annexed explications to illustrate the principal matters, and which being common to several of the coins contained in it, can be better treated together. Of this kind, in the first part are, chronological characters, the several dignities of magistrates, privileges of cities, titles of honour, festivals, games, certain formulæ of inscriptions, the nature of coins, styled cistophoroi, and whatever is of most moment to be known.

In the second part will be explained, the several titles conferred on commanders, as that of Cæsar, Augustus. &c. as well as the nature and power of their several dignities, &c. &c.

This great work will be completed in eight volumes, each part containing four. It, doubtless, would have been a considerable improvement, could the whole have been accompanied with plates, but from this the author was deterred by the enormity of the expence; more especially as an accurate description has in other writers been substituted for them.

We proceed to the contents of the general prolegomena, the first chapter of which begins with pertinent disquisitions on the terms ἀργύριον, χεῖνματα, νομισματα, pecunia, moneta, numi, numismata; and concludes with a description of the manner in which money was personified on coins, and the epigraphs accompanying such representations.

In the second chapter, which assigns the origin of money to barter, the introduction of coinage is deduced from the Greeks, and considered as extended by them to Sicily, the islands of the Archipelago, the sea-coasts of Asia Minor, the borders of the Euxine, Cyreniaca, and certain cities of Gaul and Spain, before it found its way into inland regions. The late use of it in Spain, Germany, and Britain, is particularly noticed.

Having enumerated the different accounts which have been transmitted of the inventors of money, considering that term as including *metal*, *figure*, and *weight*, it is observed, in the third

third chapter, that the data handed down are insufficient to determine the question. Thence, therefore, inquiry is directed to the age in which coinage began, or rather when it began to be common. The earliest certain account shews that money was used by the Lacedæmonians before Lycurgus, who flourished, according to some, about the first Olympiad, or, as others assert, above a century before; but a doubt is suggested, whether this were properly money, according to the definition just given. In the time of Solon, however, it not only had the requisites of *metal* and *weight*, but also of *form*. Solon is said to have flourished about the XLVth Olympiad, and was contemporary with Tarquinius Priscus, and Cyrus, which age the most ancient coins, now remaining, appear to have reached. It is generally admitted that Servius Tullius first introduced money into Rome. Hence the probable origin of coinage is placed about the beginning of the Olympiads. Money is then considered in reference to its chronological and geographical extent.

The fourth chapter has for its object, the names given to different classes of coins, or such as were stricken for different purposes. I. Those denominated from their author, (as *Croesii*, *Darici*, *Philippi*, &c.) II. From the figure upon them, (as *Bos*, *Noëtua*, *Kopā*, *Πωλο*, &c.) III. From the place of coinage, (as *Æginaci*, *Cyziceni*, &c.) IV. From their make, (as *ferrated*, &c.) V. From their weight, (as *Drachmæ*, *Obolus*, &c.) VI. From their number, (as *Denarius*, *Quinarius*, &c.) To which are added other subordinate distinctions.

The fifth chapter is occupied with the inquiry, started by Erizzo, whether the coins of ancient times were real money, or only what the Germans call *denkmünzen*, and we, after the French, *medals* and *jettons*. On this head it is determined—where a class of coins is established and rendered permanent for a series of ages or years, and its standard is preserved; where its types and fabric are the same, or are varied only by progressive improvement in the art of coining; where a character fixing the weight, or the term ΟΒΟΛΟΣ, ACCAPION, or the like, is impressed; and where it appears to have existed in great numbers—that it is to be considered as properly money. From these criteria several discussions are entered into, which evince the author's penetration and judgment.

The sixth chapter takes notice of such other materials as, besides gold, silver, brass, and their various combinations, were employed to serve for money: particularly, *iron*, *tin*, *lead*, *leather*, *wood*, and *shells*.

Chapter the seventh is employed on gold, silver, brass, and their various mixtures. Having stated the comparative purity

of gold in certain Persian, Grecian, and Roman coins, a very learned and judicious communication is introduced, containing an investigation by the baron Locella, of the import of χρυσον ἀπέρθον, and the nature of *electrum* is ascertained. The title *silver* is considered in relation to both Greeks and Romans. Under the latter, its debasement is progressively noticed, and the names of the different mixtures explained. *Brass*, as it is commonly, but copper more properly styled, succeeds in its order; and it is affirmed that the mixture called Corinthian had never been used for coins.

The various choice of the ancients, in respect to the adoption of metals for their coins, engages the attention of the eighth chapter, in which it is determined that the most ancient coinage of Greece was chiefly silver, and rarely gold, but of the Italian cities, brass. This decision, however, is in some measure restricted by the explanations subjoined, which tend to adjust the times and occasions of change.

The ninth chapter, commencing with a preliminary disquisition on the weight and value of money, is followed by an explanation of the several discriminating marks on the Grecian coins, and a statement of all the information that writers have left concerning them. (The author expresses his doubts as to those styled *oboli*, on the coins of Magna Græcia; but for a satisfactory explanation of these, we look towards another quarter.) A similar investigation is deferred to a more pertinent occasion. The ratio, or a comparative valuation of ancient money to the standard of the author's country, founded upon the very accurate observations of Abbé Barthelemy, in his *Voyage du jeune Anacharsis*, is subjoined.

In attempting to ascertain the different magnitudes of coins, which is the subject of the tenth chapter, they are arranged according to their different metals and weight, conjunctively taken. A defect which contributed to introduce uncertainty, is here noticed: viz. the matrix of Greek, Syrian, and Parthian coins, being considerably larger than the blank of metal.

In the eleventh chapter, which relates to the fabrication of ancient money, after having accurately weighed all that had been advanced on the subject, it is shewn that the terms *Flando*, *Feriundo*, are to be explained; the former, of casting the circular blanks; and the latter, of striking the device upon them.

The twelfth chapter is occupied with several particulars, relative to the fabrication and nature of ancient coins: viz. the form; the quadrature impressed upon them; the chasm in the centre of coins; coins convex on one side and hollow on the other; coins with serrated edges; coins recoined;
coins

coins carelessly stricken ; coins stricken double ; coins plated, cased, or foldered ; contorniate coins ; coins of one metal chased on another ; coins with various ornamental additions ; and the lacker or varnish of brass coins.

The thirteenth chapter institutes an inquiry concerning the right of coining, which is justly considered to be the most formal exercise of sovereign authority, and was usually expressed either by the name or figure, or both, of the person exercising or assuming it. A number of proofs are added to confirm these positions, and various reasons assigned to account for the appearance of S. C. upon the imperial and other coins.

Chapter the fourteenth, which treats of the superintendants of money and their agents, is confined to the Roman mint ; no information having been handed down relative to such officers, or their existence, amongst the Greeks.

The fifteenth chapter is, for the same reason, confined to the Roman mints, and the quantity of ancient money. Under the latter head, however, particular notices are taken of the great numbers of coins that have been discovered in different countries, and the amount of several collections.

The value of foreign money, and that of a deceased prince, so far as relates to coins of gold, silver, and brass, is the object of the sixteenth chapter, in which it is shewn that the commerce of all nations was carried on by means of Roman money ; and that till, for political or other reasons, it was thought proper to abolish it, the money of a deceased prince, whether Greek or Roman, retained its value.

The extensive subject of inscriptions is discussed in the seventeenth chapter under ten distinct sections ; the first of which treats on their origin, progress, and merits ; the second, on such as are retrograde or alternate (*βαστροφῆδον*) : the third, on the situation of the inscription : the fourth, on the different languages in which inscriptions occur : the fifth, on single, or detached letters : the sixth, on contractions or monograms : the seventh, on letters stricken posterior to coinage : the eighth, on the manner of inscribing the names of cities and people : the ninth, on dialects : the tenth, on the form of Greek letters. The last section is extended to considerable length, and illustrated with an engraved paleography of the Greeks, collected from their coins.

The eighteenth chapter, under the generic title of types, considers them as, I. diacritical signs of cities : II. as arbitrary signs of artists : and, III. as they relate to the execution or striking. The last of these leads to an enquiry into the mode, 1. of stamping them on the Roman money ; and, 2. on those of other countries.

In the nineteenth chapter, the author investigates the sub-

ject of adulterated coins, whether as being the produce, 1. of ancient fraud, or, 2. of modern. The last division is followed by the Dissertation of M. Beauvais, on counterfeit coins, with cursory remarks upon it.

The twentieth chapter is taken up with coins, which owe their defects to the fault of ancient coiners, the most striking of which are here pointed out.

In the twenty-first chapter, which enquires into the criteria that may determine the age of coins independent of any date, name, or figure impressed upon them, and those which result from the different state of the art of coining in different times and places, the author hath undertaken to supply in a summary manner, what Abbé Barthelemy, in his celebrated *Essai d'une Paléographie numismatique*, had formerly proposed. To this end the subject is divided into five epochs. Of these, the 1st begins with the art itself, and reaches to the time of Alexander I. of Macedonia: the 2d, from that period almost to the reign of Philip II. son of Amyntas, includes the space of about a hundred years: the 3d commences about the time of Philip II. and comes down nearly to the overthrow of the Roman republic: the 4th, from that time to Hadrian: the 5th, from the Antonines to Gallienus. Under each period the discriminations are adjusted from an examination of the metal, inscription, form of letters, fabric, and style of the figures impressed.

The twenty-second chapter presents an account of the principal books which have been written to elucidate the numismatic science, with a judicious statement of their respective merits. The works of Goltzius, here take the lead. The critique upon them, which occupies a considerable space, is grounded upon the three annexed positions: 1. A great part of the coins represented by Goltzius, is unquestionably genuine and frequently rare: 2. The greater number is indisputably fictitious, those especially of Roman families, and likewise those exhibited in his *Thesaurus rei antiquariæ hibernicæ*. 3. Many genuine in themselves have been shamefully perverted, by the insertion of arbitrary inscriptions of cities and people, where there was either no epigraph, or where the letters were effaced. (This is indisputably shewn by a contrast, engraved on two plates between the coins of Goltzius, and other specimens entire). IV. The taking coins originally silver for gold.—From Goltzius the author proceeds to Fulvius Ursinus—Antonius Augustinus—Adolphus Occo—Philippus Paruta—Joannes Tristanus—Petrus Seguinus—Numismata ex cimelario Ludovici XIV—Carolus Patinus—Franciscus Mediobarbus—Henricus Norisius—Philippus Buonarrotus—Andreas Morelius—Joannes Vaillant—Gottlieb Rink—Ezekiel Spanheim—

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Laurentius Begerus—Paulus Pedrusi, Petrus Piovene—Joannes Harduinus—Ludovicus Jobert, and Bimard's edition—Anselm Bandurius—Nicholaus Haym and Khell—Sigebertus Havercamp—Christian Liebe—Erasmus Froelich—Alexander Panel—Theoph. Sigefr. Bayer—Museum Theupoli—Joh. Jacob Geffner—Rodolphinus Venuti—Ant. Franc. Gori—Albertus Mazoleni—Honorius Arigoni—Franciscus Baldini—Thomas Com. Pembroke—Franciscus Wise—Jacobus Muselli—Henricus Florez—Josephus Pellerim—Thomas Mangeart—Jac. Philipus D'Orville—Josephus Khell—Beauvais—Dominicus Magnan—Ludovicus Dutens—Thomas Andreas Gussene—Anonymus. Catalogue d' une collection de Medailles, 1774—Josephus Eckhel—Franciscus Neumann—Gabriel Castellus Pr. Turris Mucia—Franc. Perez. Bayer—Carolus Combe—Christophorus Rasche—Georgius Zöega—Dominicus Sestini—Hieronymus Tanini.

The twenty-third chapter presents an account, under the countries of Spain, France, Italy, Britain, Germany, Hungary, and Transylvania, of the principal museums in each.

In the last chapter, the author considers the best method of arranging cabinets, and recapitulates what he had before proposed on this head, in his catalogue of the emperor's collection.

We have been the more particular in analysing the general prolegomena; not only in respect to the author, but also, as it comprises, in the most advantageous form, the essential principles of the science. The rest of the volume contains the coins of *cities, people, and kings*, under the respective heads of *Spain, Gaul, Britain, Germany, and Italy with its islands*. Introductory to the coins of Spain, is a disquisition prefixed, under seven distinct heads; the 1. Adverting to the money of Spain according to its different age. 2. When coining in Spain ceased. 3. The metal of the Spanish coins. 4. Of the Oscensian and Bigate money (mentioned by Livy). 5. Of the inscription. 6. Of the types. 7. The fabric and form. To which, in an eighth article, are added, observations on the works of the learned, illustrative of the Spanish money. The coins of Spain are then taken in the order proposed.

Preliminary to the coins of Gaul, are considered, 1. the epigraph; 2. types; 3. metal; 4. fabric; 5. age; 6. authors that have commented upon them.

Under the head of *Britain*, it is observed that, excepting the Roman coins stricken in the decline of the empire (and which, therefore, are not properly British) nothing certain remains. It is obvious that those which have been ascribed by

Pellerin, Dr. Combe, and Haym, to this country, are favoured only by conjecture.

The same is also said in respect to *Germany*; and upon the coins which have been assigned to it, as well as those attributed to Britain, brief strictures are added.

Italy, however, opens a wider field. In this article is inserted a curious inquiry, concerning the heavy brads, under the divisions of weight, form, district where it originated, types, age, and use. To the Etruscan, Samnite, and Oscan coins, are annexed three very curious dissertations; 1. On the Etruscan, Samnite, and Oscan letters: 2. On the termination in OM. NO. R. 3. On the bull with the face of a man. Under this last head, the author states the various explanations offered by others, and then proceeds, 1. to shew the improbability, that this figure on the coins of Campania and Sicily, should have been the symbol of a river; and, 2. the probability that it symbolized Bacchus. These disquisitions are illustrated by a plate of engravings. [Much as we admire the learning and good sense of the author, we scarcely can be induced to adopt his opinion; but the unavoidable length of this article, precludes us from being able to offer our reasons.]—

The division of Sicily is introduced by general remarks on the subject, in respect to the form of the island; the general types on its coins, the metal, and time when money there began and ceased to be stricken, with the writers that have illustrated its coinage. These are followed by observations on the dialect and languages of the Sicilian coins. The coins of each city are then given in order, interspersed with observations of considerable importance; though in reference to the coins with Punic inscriptions, they do not afford the satisfaction we hoped. Farther illustrations, however, on this head, may be looked for in a subsequent volume.

We cannot conclude this article without expressing our approbation, in the strongest terms, of the work in general, as well as our opinion, that it will not only serve to augment the reputation its author had acquired, but also to recall the attention of the learned to a subject that of late hath been too much neglected.

Though the intrinsic merit of this work could not fail to recommend it in the meanest garb, we are sorry to see it printed no better, and on no better paper. We trust, however, that its real excellence will exempt it from the common fate of German books, when published by piece-meal, in which every successive volume grows worse.

On the Diamonds of Brazil.—From the Memoirs of the Society of Natural History at Paris, by M. d'Andrada.

WE know not that the Memoirs of the Society of Natural History at Paris, have been published in a connected form, or that they have reached this country, except in the foreign Journals. As the society is almost unknown, we have taken the liberty of introducing it, by an account of this curious Memoir. The diamonds of South America are little known; and, though gems from various causes now comparatively abound, yet it may not be uninteresting to examine them on this new source.

The province of Brazil, which produces diamonds, is situated inland, between $22\frac{1}{2}$ and 16 degrees of south latitude. Its diameter is nearly 670 leagues. On the side of St. Paul, its southern boundary, there are extensive uncultivated savannahs, while the internal parts are diversified with vast mountains and hills, divided by beautiful valleys and fertile plains. Rivers and springs are also numerous. The province consists of four districts, which going from south to north, are styled St. Jago del Rei, Villa Rica, Sabara, and Serro Do frio, or the Cold Mountain, in the language of the natives Yritaury. From this last the diamonds are taken, but the whole is very rich in mines of iron, antimony, zinc, tin, silver, and gold.

The Paulists, or the ancient inhabitants of the district of St. Vincent, who first discovered these mines, peopled in a great degree the whole province. Without them, the internal parts of the country, with its immense riches, would have been uninhabited and unknown. The metropolis now reaps the fruits of their enterprising zeal, and of discoveries obtained at so great a risque. With arms constantly in their hands, to defend themselves from the savages; in the midst of impenetrable forests or barren plains, exposed for twelve years to famine and the inclemency of the air, they conquered every obstacle. Nothing could check their courage: every mountain, every hill, and every mine, have been the fruit of their toils. Soary, who first discovered and visited the Serro Do frio, gave his own name to one of the mountains. They had only fought after gold, when they found diamonds in different rivers; and, at last, in the year 1780, or the beginning of 1781, a body of 3000 smugglers, called Grimpeiros, discovered diamonds in the Terra de St. Antonio. They were, however, obliged to abandon the spot to the farmers general, who seized on the mines. It was then, that the suspicion was realized, and these mountains were found to be the true source of the diamonds. But as searching the beds and banks of rivers is less tedious, may be carried on to a greater extent, and the diamonds found there are in other respects larger, the
farmers

farmers abandoned the mountains, and made considerable establishments on the river of Toucambirucu, which washes the basis of the chain, and is nearly ninety leagues in length. It was found, on examination, that the whole stratum, under the vegetable earth, contained diamonds in different quantities, disseminated and attached to a compact ferrugineous ore, but never in veins, or within the walls of a matrix.

It was at first attempted to prevent the digging; but smuggling, and the ease of conveying them by the Brazil fleet, as eastern diamonds, induced the government to establish a farm. The first terms were, that no more than 600 negroes should be employed; but these were soon evaded, and there have been from six to eight thousand at work. It was afterwards taken into the hands of government, to prevent fraud and the low price to which the number, on sale, would necessarily occasion. At present, in consequence of different views, they are again farmed. But, notwithstanding the great profits which accrue to the royal treasury, the inhabitants of the province suffer greatly, for the extent of the diamond country, 'condemns to a destructive repose,' immense tracts, rich in gold.

The figure of the diamond varies: some are octoedral, formed by the reunion of two tetraedral pyramids: the *adamas octaedrus turbinatus* of Wallerius, the octaedral diamond of Romè de l' Isle. These are almost always found on the outside of the others, are almost round, either in consequence of their peculiar crystallization, or from being rolled in the water. They resemble those eastern diamonds, which the Portuguese and Indians call *reboludos* *. Others are oblong, and appear to be the *adamas hexaedrus tabellatus* of Wallerius: these two last are usually found in the beds of rivers, and the *exuviae* which usually cover the banks. The crust of the mountain, in which they are also found, consists of a stratum of ferrugineous sand, with rounded flints, forming an ocrey pudding-stone, owing to a decomposition of emerald, and of iron combined with the common mud. These strata, and this sand, have different names, according to their form and situation.

The diamonds are procured by turning the course of the rivulets to wash the gravel and to enable the miners to select the best stones, or by bruising the ferrugineous sand, which forms the crust of the mountain. The washing differs from that of gold, in using very little clear water, and very little sand at a time. Negroes are employed in this business, who work naked, with a single apron, that they may not conceal the diamonds. But, not-

* *Roulés*, rounded.

withstanding every precaution, and all the vigilance of numerous inspectors, they find means of concealing and selling the diamonds to smugglers, in exchange for rum and tobacco. One large diamond, we remember hearing, was concealed by the slave in a wound, made purposely in his leg. But he managed better: by the assistance of friends, he sold it, procured his own ransom, and a handsome fortune.

It may be added to this account, that the diamonds of the East Indies, are found in the same kind of earth. That of Golconda is red, with veins of a substance very nearly resembling lime, of different colours, mixed with shells, which seem to be cemented together. This situation may occasion some speculations. It brings the diamond very near to the parent flint glass: the latter is flint fused with an alkali, whose density is increased by a metallic calx, and its colour discharged by another: the former, a pure oil, whose density is increased, and crystallization occasioned by a metal, and whose colour is discharged by heat. Nature does this often ineffectually: spots are found in the diamond, which the lapidaries clear away by some secret method; but this method pretty certainly consists in the regulated application of the proper heat.

Kazimierz Wielki, &c. — Casimer the Great, a Drama in three Acts, represented at the National Theatre, the 3d of May, 1792, the Day of the Anniversary of the Revolution; by J. U. Niemcewicz. Warsaw, 1792.

WE cannot give a better idea of this performance, than by translating a part of the author's Preface, where he gives an account of the motives which engaged him to write, and the feelings which have dictated his writings. The king and the states, he observes, had ordered the 3d of May to be celebrated as a national festival, in remembrance of the establishment of the wisest and most happy constitution. "Willing to contribute my part to this joyful solemnity, I have undertaken this piece, without being terrified with the extent of the work in the little time allotted me to do it; willing rather to expose myself to criticism, than lose an opportunity of shewing my zeal for the happiness of my country.—The reign of Casimir the Great, appears to me to resemble, in many circumstances, the present. Casimir ascended the throne at a stormy period, like Stanislaus Augustus, and combated the caprices of fate by prudence. It was to Casimir that our ancestors owed the order established in government by the diet of Wislica, and the laws which were extended to the citizens of all classes: to
secure

secure the public tranquillity, he had besides the precaution to chuse from his companions a worthy successor.—These facts, joined together in our annals, have furnished the subject of my drama, as general patriotism has inspired the sentiments of it. Those who perceive the imperfections of my work, ought to consider that it was written in less than twenty days, and that a piece suitable to the national festival, was of more consequence than a regular drama.” The diet of Wislica, and the solemn arrival of Louis of Hungary, named successor to the crown of Poland, make the principal subject of the drama. But as this event alone could not furnish materials for three acts, the author has subjoined an under-plot, of a nature more suitable to the stage.—Nimiera, equerry, and favourite of the king, was in love with the beautiful Hannah, daughter of a senator of Poland, and intimate friend of queen Jadewigne, a princess of great merit, but whose jealous disposition had displeased the king, and disunited them for a long time. A letter, in which Hannah describes the virtues and the melancholy destiny of the queen, falling by chance into the hands of the king, this prince, partly from a grateful return of tenderness and generosity to his wife, as well as to make his favourite happy, gave him orders to invite the queen to return to the palace. This reconciliation, brought about by the ministry of young Nimiera, could not fail of engaging the affections of his mistress, and he obtained her hand, after having been made a knight by the king, with the usual ceremonies. The festivals, in consequence of this marriage, and the return of the queen, served to increase the splendor of the reception of Louis, whose arrival contributed to make every person contented and happy. Many episodes, in which the king gives audiences to citizens of different classes, impress the most interesting idea of the goodness and justice of the monarch, and of the loyalty of ancient times. The king appears interested in the rights of the least individuals; and if he had been able for a moment to forget them, the senator Mielztyna, father of Hannah, would have reminded him of them. This remarkable old man, though he had passed his life in the first employments of the army and state, breathed only liberty and patriotism. In his eyes all men were equal. Nothing inspired him with respect but virtue, and if any thing interested him, it was misfortune. To the king he thought he owed truth alone.

The Polish nation applauded these principles, but did not think, at that time, their reign would be so short.

Compte rendu par Jerome Petion, a ses Concitoyens.

*An Account of his Conduct during his Mayoralty, presented by
Jerom Petion to his fellow Citizens. Paris, 1792.*

WE have never thought favourably of M. Petion's conduct, and cannot but look upon him as the author of all the misfortunes which, since the fatal 20th of June, 1792, have afflicted his unhappy country. It is but just, however, to give every man a fair hearing, and we only regret that our limits will not permit us to present to the public a full abstract of the pamphlet before us. A considerable portion of it, however, consists of details not interesting to English readers; such as those respecting domains, finances, impositions of taxes, public works, police, subsistence, &c.

On the subject of the riots at the club of Feuillans, Mr. Petion evidently appears a partizan—He says, “that the intrigues of this society were the sole cause of the insults it experienced;” but as he omits to give a detail of these intrigues, and seems to rejoice in the destruction of that society, we are confirmed in our opinion, that upon that occasion “he did not do his duty.”

A subject less known to English readers is the famous feast which was given to the Swiss of Chateau-vieux, and this we shall extract in M. Petion's own words.

“We are now,” says he, “arrived at a memorable epoch; I mean that of the feast of the Swiss of Chateau-vieux. Never did the human passions clash with so much fury as in this conjuncture. The party of La Fayette, which augmented daily, by the re-union of all the enemies of liberty and equality, were agitated with rage; the homage rendered to the victims of his treason, and of his conspiracy with Bouillé, appeared an outrage done to his glory. On the other side, the friends of justice, and the true patriots, exacted, but with less violence, a splendid reparation to the innocent sufferers unworthily sacrificed to the infamous intrigues of the court. On both parts the irritation was extreme. A great part of the national guard loudly threatened to oppose this feast with their utmost force; some vehement petitions were presented; they addressed themselves to the department, whose spirit of hatred and jealousy against the municipality was well known, and whose affection for La Fayette was not less acknowledged. They pressed the department to exert its authority, and some members even of the municipality, very adverse to the feast, demeaned themselves so much as to make these solicitations. The department had the strongest desire to collect these instances,

stances, but it hesitated, and feared to appear. The municipality during this time made great advances; their minds, instead of being calmed, became still more irritated, in proportion as the moment approached; every thing announced a violent, and, if we may be allowed the expression, an inevitable shock.

"I proposed a decree, in order to prevent any arms from being exhibited at this august ceremony, and that no appearance of force might arrive to suppress the generous movements of the citizens, in which I engaged the people to keep a guard over their own conduct; I recalled them to a sense of their own dignity, to the respect that they owed to themselves. This decree was adopted; it alarmed, it destroyed the malevolent, it disconcerted all their conspiracies, and all the sanguinary projects which had been formed.

"On the evening of the feast the department made it impossible to prevent it. It called us to a conference, where, under the pretext of solicitude, the worst dispositions were manifested. We were addressed with affectation concerning the imminent dangers to which public affairs tended; we were told we should answer for whatever misfortunes might happen; and this was said to me in a very particular and animated manner. The department afterwards wrote to me, carefully recalling to my mind this responsibility, in order to prove its representations and my resistance, to the end that I might not escape without difficulty if any disaster should arise. It terminated by adopting a very crafty decree, by which it was completely guarded, throwing back the consequences if they were fatal, upon the promises made by the municipality that all should pass with safety. However, this decree produced only bad effects.

"The day arrived; never sight was more beautiful, more prepossessing. The sentiment of liberty was there displayed in all its energy; an admirable order reigned throughout the march; the row of citizens who were spectators was armed with swords, and these swords, which occupied the less agreeable place of bayonets, had more power than the army of the despots. Gaiety, alacrity, shone from all parts. The people appeared great and proud of the entire confidence which was placed in them; they seemed to honour themselves by making themselves worthy of it. The aspect of the Champ de Mars was magnificent: it was covered with an immense multitude, abandoning themselves without constraint to every innocent pleasure, to the emotions of the soul, to the expansion of a joy pure and without remorse. Not a man took wine, not a cup was carried; and this first example of a feast, where the

people had been entirely trusted to themselves, was truly sublime."

From this period M. Petion remarks, there no longer existed any tranquillity in the city.—He speaks much of the intrigues of the court; but here we must remark the same deficiency that we hinted at before, viz. a total deficiency of proof.—The cries of a *bas le Jacobins*, a *bas la nation*, which he says were echoed through the streets, are no proofs of *intrigue*, but of the contrary. If there had been any plot in the court to betray the constitution, it would have proceeded with secrecy and silence; and those "seditious shouts," as our author terms them, could be no other than the momentary expressions of indignation and disgust at the outrageous proceedings of those fatal enemies of liberty, the Jacobins.

Of the king's intended departure, Mr. Petion also brings no proofs. Over the disgraceful 20th of June, he passes with a cautious silence; but he has the insolence and imprudence to confess, that he was perfectly informed of every thing that passed previous to the 10th of August; and yet this immaculate magistrate took no steps to prevent the bloodshed of that horrid day. After this he says his administration may be considered as terminated; his authority was enveloped in the vortex of the revolution, and his functions were seized with a palsy.

Though M. Petion has not, in our opinion, justified himself, yet his concluding reflections are deserving of attention, since even he, the grand mover of sedition, the captain general of iniquity and rebellion, can see and acknowledge the necessity of maintaining order and subordination; and can describe, in lively terms, the ruinous consequences of the artifices his own party have completed. Happy would it be for France if even the eloquence of Jerome Petion could restore this disordered people to their senses!

"At present", says he, "it is necessary to defend the people from themselves; it is necessary to defend them against those men who carry on with regard to them the same trade that the courtiers formerly carried on against kings. It is necessary to dissipate those illusions which flatter and lead them astray; far from favouring their tendency to insurrection, as might have been lawful when we had tyranny to contend with; it is necessary now to suppress it, since it now can be only fatal and destructive of liberty. Each day these men endeavour to give the people false notions upon their rights, and of the manner of exercising them. Each day they disfigure the most simple principles of morality and justice.—Each day they erect anarchy into a system. Ignorant men, who have not the slightest idea of the science of government, who take
exag-

exaggeration for strength, declamation for reason, who have continually in their mouths the words liberty and equality, who blush not to say to a hundred individuals, you are sovereigns; these men daily publish with unblushing impudence, extravagances which would only be worthy of pity if they were offered to men wise and confirmed in their principles; but which become dangerous, because they are eagerly received by a people destitute of knowledge, whose passions *these deceivers are earnest to cultivate and cherish.*"

Colleccao de Libros ineditos, de Historia Portuguesa, &c.

A Collection of unpublished Works on the History of Portugal, from the Reign of John I. to the End of the Reign of John II. published by the Order of the Academy of Sciences at Lisbon, by Jos. Correa de Seria, Secretary to the Academy. Lisbon, 1790—1792. 2 Vols. Folio.

THIS is a publication of considerable importance, and history is greatly indebted to the Portuguese academy for their valuable collection. It contains five ancient chronicles, which, without their care, must have mouldered in the dust of some neglected library. Yet, in our situation, it is not necessary to be diffuse on this subject; a short account of the contents is only suitable.

The first chronicle is the History of the War of Ceuta, and the actions of Don Pedro de Menezes, by Matthew Pisano. From the internal evidence it appears, that this chronicle was composed 45 years after the taking of Ceuta, consequently about the year 1460. The MS. is well preserved, and appears to be of the same æra. It belongs to the library of the marquis Penalva.

The second is the chronicle of the King Edward (Duarte) by Ruy de Pina, historiographer of Portugal, and keeper of the archives. The author was first employed in the diplomatic department, and principally in an embassy to the court of Spain, on the discovery of Portugal by Columbus. His historical works display considerable knowledge in his former line; and the principal source of his materials seems to have been the writings of Fernando Lopez, much esteemed in that country.

The third chronicle, the History of King Alphonso V. is by the same author; at least in a great degree, and from the same sources. It seems to have been begun by another author and continued by Pina.

The fourth, containing the reign of John II. is wholly by Pina, and the result of his own observation; and is consequently

quently of greater value. These three chronicles are printed from MSS. preserved in the archives.

The fifth is entitled the Chronicle of D. Pedro de Menezes, written by Gomes E. de Zurara, another historiographer, and keeper of the seals in Portugal. The author, who was of a good family, had first a canonry, and enjoyed, in 1454, a commandery of the order of Christ: but, at last, tired of an idle life, he began to study. It was a little too late; but his progress was so rapid, that he was soon considered as a prodigy of learning; and, when the old Fernando Lopez demanded his dismissal as historiographer, the king appointed Zurara to this office, and added afterwards other advantages. He composed an abstract of the memoirs of Pedro, Fernando, and John I. This work was much esteemed; and probably on this account, the original memoirs are in a great measure lost. With respect to the history of his own time, he had good opportunities of being well informed, and there is not the least doubt of his impartiality. It is a proof of his sincerity, that a great part of his Chronicle of Count Duarte de Menezes, was suppressed by the ecclesiastical and civil censure. This Chronicle will soon appear; and, though mutilated, is still interesting. The MS. belongs to the library of Count de Noronha; but the publication of the *whole* is not yet permitted.

Briefe zu Beförderung der Humanität, &c. Letters in Favour of Humanity. Published by J. G. Herder, in Two Parts. 12mo. Riga. 1793.

THOSE who are acquainted with the writings of Herder, well know, that there is no subject which he is not qualified to recommend and adorn; but in this new work his merits as a writer, are fully equalled by his sentiments as a man. The late publication of these Letters, preclude us from entering particularly into them, but as, both from the subject of them, and their intrinsic merit, a translation may be shortly expected, we thought it better thus briefly to announce them in this, rather than defer them to another Appendix.

The topics are, 1. A Compact of Humanity between Friends. 2. On the Life of Benjamin Franklin, written by Himself. 3. Franklin's Queries relating to the Establishment of a Society for the Advancement of Humanity, with an Application of them. 4. On Schlichtegroll's Nekrolog (printed at Gotha 1791). 5. On the same. 6. On the mutual Obligation of Germany and the United Provinces in the Cause of Humanity. 7. On the posthumous Works of the late King of Prussia. 8. Thoughts and Maxims in them. 9. Continuation. 10. Klopstock's Ode on the Emperor. A Dialogue

on the Death of Joseph the Second. 11. On the Interference of Poetry on public Occasions and Topics. 12. Continuation. 13. Continuation. Stolberg's Ode on the Prince Royal of Denmark. 14. What is the Spirit of the Times? 15. Answer to the Question. 16. Answer of Another. 17. Continuation. The Thoughts of Luther on Change of Government. 18. Luther an Instructor of the German Nation. His Thoughts of the People, and of Tyrants. 19. On the Basis of Social Union. The Praise of the Germans by Luther. 20. Klopstock's Ode on the North American War. 21. A Doubt concerning the Spirit of the Times. Continuation of Thoughts of the King of Prussia. 22. Solution of the Doubt. 23. A Dream, and a Prospect into Futurity. 24. On the progressive Perfection of Mankind, a Question and Doubt. 25. An Answer to the Question. An Aphorism on the human Character. 26. On an invisibly visible Society, two Dialogues.

Having thus enumerated the contents of these volumes, we will give the last letter of the first, as a specimen, and the rather, because the ode it contains is in celebration of a prince, who appears deserving of every commendation, and whose rising glory and virtues we contemplate with some pride, from his near alliance in blood with the royal family of this country.

‘Milden erquickenden Regen wünschet die keimende Staat der Humanität in Europa; keine Stürme. Die Mufen wohnen friedlich auf ihren heiligen Bergen, und wenn sie ins Schlachtfeld, wenn sie in die Rathskammern der Großen treten, entbieten sie Frieden. Eine edle würdige. That zu loben ist ihnen ein süßeres Geschäft, als alle Flüche Alcäus oder Archilochus auf taube Unmenschen herabzudonnern.

‘Wenn es z. B. in unsern Zeiten einen Regenten gäbe, der an seinem Theil dem barbarischen Menschen-Erkauf in andern Welttheil entsagte, und damit andern Staaten zu ihrem Erröthen ein Beispiel gab; wenn er nach Jahrhunderten der erste wäre, der die Sklaverei willkührlicher Frohnen und andre erdrückende Lasten seinem Volk entnahm, und ein andres seiner Völker von eben so drückenden Einschränkungen im Handel befreiete; wenn dieser Regent ein Hoffnungsvoller königlicher Jüngling, und Einrichtungen dieser art nur das Vorspiel seiner Regierung wären; Heil dem Dichter, der solche Thaten ohne alle Schemehelli würdig und schön darstellte! Heil jedem Leser und Horer, der diesem Herzen zujauchzte! Dänemark ist das friedliche, glückliche Land, dem dieser Stern aufgehet: sein Kronprinz ist der königliche Jüngling, der seine Laufbahn also beginnet, und F. L. STOLBERG, der Dichter, der ihm hierüber würdig danket.

An

An den Kronprinzen von Dänemark.

Noch nie erscholl ein Name der mächtigen
Zu meiner Leier, Jüngling; ich weihte sie
Den Freunden nur und Gott, und süßem
Häuslichen Glück, und der Liebe Thränen,

Und Dir, Natur, im Hain und am Meergestad',
Und Dir, O Freiheit! Freiheit, du Hochgefühl
Der reinen Seelen; Deinen Becher
Krängt' ich mit Blumen des kühnen Liedes.

Und werd' ihn kränzen, weil ein Nerve mir
Noch zucket! werd' ihn kosten mit zitternder
Und blauer Lippe, wenn des Todes
Hand mir ihn reichet in hehrer Stunde.

Nun wind' ich junge Blumen im Kranze Dir,
O Jüngling, weil du früh es nicht achtetest
Zu herrschen über Sklaven, weil du
Forschetest, hörtest, beschloßest, thatest!

Das Joch des Landmanns drückte Jahrhunderte;
Du brachst es! Hör' es, heiliger Schatte du
Von meinen Vater, der das Beispiel
Dießseit der Eider und dann am Sund gab*.

Du brachst es, Jüngling! wandtest erröthend dich
Vom Dank des Landes, fahst auf dem Ocean
Der Handlung Bande, die des Neides
Hand und der Habsucht im Finstern knupfte.

Zerriffest leicht wie Spinnengewebe sie,
Dass nicht die stolze Fichte des Normanns mehr
Dem Bruderhafen Juldigt, eh sie
Schwellende Segel dem Ostwind öffne†.

Nicht gleiche Gaben spendet des Vaters Hand
Den Völkern. Eisen starret im Schachte dort,
Hier wanken Aehren, unfres Tisches
Freude gedeihet auf fernen Bergen.

* Des Dichters Vater war der erste in Holstein, der den Bauern seines Guts Freiheit und Eigenthum gab. Die Königin Sophia Magdalena aus dem Hause Brandenburg, Großmutter des jetzigen Königes von Dänemark, gab den Bauern des Amtes Hirschholm auf seinen Rath, und nach der Einrichtung, die er Frotz aller in den Weg gelegten Schwierigkeiten mit Muth durchsetzte, Freiheit und Eigenthum.

† Den Norwegern ist die Ueberfahrt nach Westindien leichter als den Danen, deren Schiffe der Kattegat oft aufhält. Jene dieses Vortheils zu berauben, verpflichtete man die Schiffer, vor der Fahrt nach Westindien erst in Kopenhagen einzulaufen. Man nannte das, *sich präsentiren*.

Zum freien Tausche ladet der Vater ein ;
 Doch schmiedet, hart und klügelnd, der blinde mensch
 Dem Tausche Zwang ; der biedre Normann
 Kaufte sein Brot auf verengten Markte.

Nun reifen fremde Saaten für ihn, wenn früh—
 Erwacht der Winter auf dem Gebürge sich
 Aufstreckt, und von starrer Schulter
 Glänzende Flocken in Thäler schüttelt.

Ich sat dich handeln, Jüngling, und freute mich
 Doch nur mit halber Freude. Lud Danien
 Nicht häufend noch auf seine Schulter
 Fluch des zertreten, zerrissnen Volkes,

Uneingedenk der heiligen Lehren, und
 Für jene Ader fühllos, die Gottes hand
 Im Herzen spannte, daß sie klopfend
 Unrecht and Recht and Erbarmen lehre ?

Von Menschen kaufte Menschen der Mensch, und ward
 Ein Teufel !—Wer vermag den getruben Blick
 Zu heften auf des armen Mohren
 Elend und Schmach und gezuckte Geißel ?

Aufs schwangre Weib, das jammernd die Hände ringt
 Am krummen Ufer ;—Thränenlos starret sie
 Dem fernen Segel nach ; noch schallt ihr
 Dumpf in der Ohren das Hohngelächter.

Des Treibers, noch der klirrenden Kette Klang,
 Und ihres mannes Klage, das Angstgeschrei
 Der jüngsten Tochter, die der Wutrich
 Ihr aus umschlingden Armen losriß.—

Du setzeß Ziel dem Gräuel, ein nahes Ziel !
 Erröthend staun' und ahme dem Beispiel nach
 Der Britte, will er werth der Freiheit
 Seyn, die auf Weisheit und Recht sich gründet.

Gott setze deinen Tagen ein fernes Ziel,
 O Jüngling ! keins dem Segen, der dein einst harrt.
 Sei deinen Taufenden noch lange
 Bruder ! Nur Einer ist Aller Vater.

F. L. Gr. z. STOLBERG.

“ Wenn mehrere solcher Gefänge über Anlässe solcher Art
 uns zukommen, meine Brüder : so wollen wir einander unore
 Freude ja mittheilen : denn besangen Horaz und Pindar je ein
 edleres Thema edler ? ”

Dis-

Discorso sopra il Problema delle Longitudini.

A Discourse on the Problem of the Longitudes. By P. Gregoire Fontana, Professor of Mathematics in the University of Padua. 8vo. Padua.

FROM M. Fontana, whose mathematical productions we have formerly with pleasure recorded, we should have expected more than a popular 'discourse. Yet it is not trifling or superficial; and we shall, perhaps, never have a better opportunity of stating to the general reader, the principles of this important problem.

The perfection of the art of navigation depends on knowing, at any period, the position of the vessel on the earth, and this position is determined by knowing its distance from the equator, and the first meridian: the first, styled the latitude, is discovered by a very easy observation, with the quadrant; but the second, that is, the distance, from the point from which the meridians are calculated; or, as this is various, from any known meridian, is a more difficult problem. Time is the only known measure applicable to the longitude; and this great question would be resolved, if it could be known, at any given time, what the hour was at the Canaries, or any known meridian, when the sun is in the zenith, at the place where the ship is, allowing 15° of the equator for every hour. To determine this difference, there are five different methods; the first consists in measuring, by the cord and log, the way which the vessel makes in a minute, and estimating, from thence, its course in an hour, and marking accurately the direction of the course. Having therefore the course, the latitude, and their angle given, it is easy to find the third side, or the longitude. The second and third methods consist in observing the eclipses of the moon, the immersion and emersion of the satellites of Jupiter, behind or from the planet. These phænomena are seen at the same moment, from different parts of the earth, and it is only necessary to compare the time observed, with the time calculated for any known meridian, to discover the difference. The fourth method consists in the use of the lunar tables, calculated for a known situation. Having observed the latitude and longitude of the moon, at a certain hour, by a watch, regulated under the meridian of the observation, it is easy, by the help of tables, to determine the time when the moon has the same latitude and longitude, at the place for which the tables were calculated, and the difference of time will give the difference of meridians. The

fifth method consists in a regularly-going watch, which, regulated according to the known meridian of the place from whence the ship sailed, will continue with a regular unvaried motion, unaffected by the climate and the motion of the ship, to show the hours of the meridian at the port where it was regulated. If then the latitude be obtained by observation, the watch will tell the degree of longitude.

After explaining the difficulty and uncertainty of the former methods, from a defect of accuracy in the observer, the few opportunities of making the observations, and the little skill of those who want to employ them, father Fontana proceeds to the history and explanation of the fifth method, which was exactly that from which least was expected, while it was the most clear, simple, and obvious. Our countryman Harrison, tempted by the prize, and feeling his own resources in a most ingenious and mechanical mind, came to London, and deserved the prize. His watch varied so little in two voyages, from Portsmouth to Jamaica and Barbadoes, and in the two voyages of the return, that, after contesting with the pride of science, with interest, with party, and with prejudice, he obtained the reward.

Harrison's method, Fontana has explained, as well as he was able, without figures. It consists in improving the common watch, and obviating the irregularities arising from the action of the principal wheel on the others, the obstacles which the balance wheel experiences from the different temperatures, the thickening of the oil, the friction of different parts, rendering the vibrations unequal in equal times. The present watches greatly exceed Harrison's; and Mr. Mudge has lately received, with great propriety and justice, a parliamentary reward.

Commentarius in Apocalypsin Joannis. Scripsit Jo. Godefr. Eichhorn. 2 Vols. 8vo. Gottingae.

IF we may judge of the oracles delivered to the ancient Hebrews from those which have come down to us, we must conclude them to have been of a twofold nature: the one, imparted to the minds of the prophets in the words by which they expressed them; the other, suggested to them in a state of extasy, under the signs or representations of visible objects. Of the former, the sense must have been determinate, from the established relations, that, in the ordinary intercourse of men, words bear to the things they express; whilst the latter were liable to considerable obscurity, from their enigmatic form
and

and symbolical character. But as these two modes of communication were frequently blended, it is evident that the narrative part materially contributed to explain the visionary, and thus rendered intelligible what, otherwise, would not have been understood. Of this mixed quality is the revelation of St. John; in which the monologues, conferences of celestial agents, and hymns, interspersed with the relation of the vision, pertinently connect the subordinate parts, and augment thereby the effect of the whole.

It likewise appears from the visions described, that the ancient prophets were rapt, in a state of extasy, to heaven, for the purpose of beholding an anticipated procedure of events arising into action in the divine presence, as if to intimate that the universe is subject to infinite wisdom, and nothing takes place that is not preordained. Thus these exhibitions in a manner resemble the spectacles of an earthly theatre, displayed to the view of celestial spectators. See Rev. iv. 1. In this light the amplest scope is given to poetic invention; and as in the writings of the Hebrew poets, every species of style and diversity of ornament were adopted that could give interest to their recitals of these extatic visions, so they may be accounted dramatic compositions. The book of Job, it is well known, has been treated as such, and on these grounds the revelation is deemed to be a drama.

In developing the idea thus suggested, professor Eichhorn has discovered great ingenuity; but as it would extend the article beyond the limits we are compelled to assign it, were we to follow him step by step, we shall present our readers with a summary of the whole.

This divine oracle is divided then into *Title*, *Prologue*, and *Drama*; the latter consisting of a *Prolusion*, three *Acts*, and an *Epilogue*.

The TITLE, c. i. 1—3.

The PROLOGUE, c. i. 4.—c. iv. 22.

which contains a declaration that *the argument of the drama relates to Christians*.

(a) The churches are saluted, c. i. 4—8.

(b) The churches are told where John was, and where this vision of futurity was communicated to him, and he enjoined to record it, c. i. 8—20. at which time he was also commanded

(c) To admonish the Christians by letters to the duties of virtue and piety, as well as to communicate the vision. c. ii. 1—iii. 22.

The epistles to the churches follow, seven in number, according to the symbolical style.

There is an apparent discrepancy at this point.

The pages are either missing or the pagination is incorrect.

The filming is recorded as the book is found in the collections.

The epistle to the church at Ephesus,	c. ii. 1—7
— — — — —	Smyrna, c. ii. 8—11.
— — — — —	Pergamos, c. ii. 12—17.
— — — — —	Thyatira, c. ii. 18—29.
— — — — —	Sardis, c. iii. 1—6.
— — — — —	Philadelphia, c. iii. 7—13.
— — — — —	Laodicea, c. iii. 14—22.

THE DRAMA ITSELF.

The PROLUSION, c. iv. 1.—c. viii. 5.

The exhibition of the scene.

- (a) God sitting on a throne, c. iv. 1—11.
 - (b) Jesus Christ *συνθρονος*, with a volume containing the records of events to come, of which the contents were declared to be known only to God and his assessor, c. v. 1—14.
 - (c) The beginning of the explication of the volume. The destructive import of the volume, during the opening of the four first seals, is submitted to conjecture. c. vi. 1—8.
 - (d) It referred to the adversaries of the Christian religion, c. vi. 9—11.
 - (e) A dread of every thing portending evil to the adversaries of the Christian religion is augmented, c. vi. 12—17.
- Exode*, or Interlude. Christians collected from the Jews and Gentiles, unobnoxious to the forementioned omens:
- a. Christians from among the Jews, c. vii. 1—8.
 - b. — — — — — Gentiles, c. vii. 9—17.
- (f) An apparatus is displayed proper to introduce the very direful events that are next to be foreshewn, c. viii. 1—2.

Exode. The procedure of the miseries immediately ensuing, c. viii. 3—5.

ACT THE FIRST. c. viii. 6. — c. 12—17.

Jerusalem is vanquished, or Judaism is conquered by the Christian Religion.

- (a) The general calamity is foretold. c. viii. 6—12.
- Exode*. The triple woe proclaimed. c. viii. 13.
- (b) The calamity foretold derives its origin from the tumults of men in a state of rebellion. c. ix. 1—12.
 - (c) The Roman army, sent against these revolvers, seizes on Judea. c. ix. 13—21.
- First Exode*. It is declared that the promises of God to de-

deliver his worshipers from danger, will have a speedy effect, c. x. 1—11.

Second Exode. Which is to be followed by the oppression of Judaism. c. xi. 1—14.

- (d) The overthrow of Jerusalem by the Romans, c. xi. 15—19. The infirm state of the Christian church, such as it might be supposed, after the depression of Judaism, is described; then the miserable condition of the Jews, still addicted to Judaism, yet not without expressing the hope that, after having adopted Christianity, they shall enjoy the blessings of it.

ACT THE SECOND. c. xii. 18—c. xx. 10.

Rome is vanquished, or Gentilism is subdued by Christianity.

- (a) The object of destruction that next succeeds, or in other words, the Gentile superstition is defined by clear symbols and signs. c. xii. 18.—c. xiii. 18.

a. Rome, the seat of idolatry, is described under the image of a sea-monster, to excite in the readers a notion of idolatry. c. xii. 18.—c. xiii. 10.

b. The preceding scene is adorned by another monster come forth from the earth, which represents the lying prophet, that by his delusions and miracles united assists the sea-monster (idolatry) to deceive men. c. xiii. 11—18.

Exode. The tranquillity and happiness of the worshipers of God is contrasted with the confusion and fury of the profane Gentiles. c. xiv. 1—5.

- (b) The destruction of Rome, or abolition of Gentilism is foretold and completed. c. xiv. 6.—c. xvi. 21.

a. The destruction of Rome is proclaimed. c. xiv. 6—13.

b. The same distinction is exhibited under the symbols of harvest and vintage. c. xiv. 14—20.

c. Seven plagues inflicted on Rome for the destruction of the city, c. xv. and xvi.

Angels go forth to presignify of the impending evils, c. xv. 1.

Exode. It is declared to the Gentiles that these are the omens of future evils. c. xv. 2—4.

The omens are verified in the event. c. xv. 5.—xvi. 21.

- (a) The angels receive injunctions to inflict the destined evils on Rome. c. xv. 6—c. xvi. 51.

- (b) The command is executed. c. xiv. 2—21.

a. The public calamity is shadowed forth. c. xvi. 2—9.

b. The calamity foretold relates to the extinction of idolatry (Rome) c. xvi. 10, 11.

c. All difficulties are removed by which this great event might be impeded, c. xvi. 12—16.

d. Rome

d. Rome is at length overthrown. c. xvi. 17—21.

Exode. Rome and the Roman empire is manifested to be the seat of idolatry by new and certain signs. c. xvii.

(c) Lamentation on the overthrow of Rome. c. xviii. 1—24.

(d) Triumphant song. c. xix. 1—10.

(e) Triumphal solemnity. c. xix. 11.—c. xx. 3.

The Christian religion reigns. c. xx. 4—10.

ACT THE THIRD. c. xx. 11.—c. xxii. 5.

The heavenly Jerusalem descends from heaven, or the felicity of a future life of endless duration, is described.

(a) The scene represents the resurrection of the dead, and the admission of the good to be citizens of the celestial republic. c. xx. 11—14.

(b) New Jerusalem, the seat of the Messiah's empire, and an eternal life of happiness in it is described. c. xxi. 1.—xxii. 5.

THE EPILOGUE. c. xxii. 6—11.

(a) Of the angel. c. xxii. 6.

(b) Of Jesus Christ. c. xxii. 7—16.

(c) Of John. c. xxii. 16. 21.

a. Admonishes his readers to beware how they add to or diminish aught from the oracle of life. c. xxii. 16—20.

b. Takes leave of the churches. v. 21.

Having thus given an abstract of the argument, we should be glad could we follow Mr. Eichhorn in his various illustrations of the art and ingenuity, the care and attention, the learning and judgment with which the whole is conducted; but for these, and the comment itself, we must refer to the work at large, which may justly be considered as an happy display both of biblical learning and critical skill.

Le Passé, le Présent, & l'Avenir, Comedies chacun en un Act, & en Verse, recues au Theatre de la Nation le 30th Juillet, 1791, par L. B. Picard.

The Past, the Present, and the Future, Comedies of one Act, in Verse, acted in the National Theatre, July, 1791.

PUBLIC exhibitions are the best criteria of the national taste: and political ones are calculated not only to discover their opinions, but are often employed to direct the minds, to rouse the spirits, or to enlighten the understanding of the spectators. On this account, in the present article, we shall endeavour to give a short account of a political drama, composed for the meridian of France, and in some measure, we apprehend,

descriptive of the temper of that nation at this extraordinary crisis.

M. Picard's work is singular: indeed the revolution in France is not merely political; for the minds, the customs, and the views of the whole nation are changed, and become truly singular. Shakspeare has been blamed by the French critics for his neglect of the unities; but one of their own poets has here taken a much bolder step, in this respect, than the author of 'Pericles,' or of the 'Winter's Tale.' In three distinct comedies, or rather in three different acts, the author introduces the same personages, but at very different æras, to show what the French were before the revolution, what they are at present, and, by conjecture, (but here all is uncertain) what they will be. Perhaps the ideas of the reader and the spectator will not agree with the author in his last copy: the second act must be tolerably faithful; and the first can scarcely be considered as overcharged. It is a glaring picture of the abuse of despotism.

M. Dunoir, a rich citizen, designs to marry, we scarcely know for what reason, his daughter to an abbé without a fortune, preceptor to the nephew of an archbishop. He wishes him to give up, before marriage, the little band (the distinguishing part of the abbé's dress); an unusual request under the whole system, and which should have been accounted for. Madame Dunoir, whose views are different from her husband's, designs her daughter for the marquis Duribar, brother of the same archbishop, whose interest is sufficiently great to enable him to look up to the ministry, but, in other respects, the greatest of villains. The young lady, as often happens, has made a very different choice, and fixed her affections on Dullis, a young author, whose whole fortune is his merit and ability. The marquis attempts to send off his rival by a very easy expedient, a *lettre de cachet*, which is still more within his reach, as his sister is declared the mistress of the king. The archbishop and his brother congratulate themselves on this event, as it gives the one hopes of being minister, the other of having the benefices at his own disposal. They describe their future conduct, after the former model of ministers; and the poignancy of truth, to a French audience, will probably compensate for the want of poetical merit in the verses. The archbishop goes to rehearse the part of Colin, which he is to play, in the evening, with madame Dunoir; and this trait is not improbable, for the abbé Boismont, preacher to the king, was distinguished as an actor; and a keeper of the seals, who in France is an ecclesiastic, excelled in Crispin.

The marquis's game-keeper brings in a farmer, who had shot some rabbits. The farmer is the father of Deschamps, the
valet

valet and necessary agent of the marquis; but the latter, inexorable respecting his rabbits, will not pardon him, till Deschamps brings his sister, a pretty country girl, to plead for him. The father does not then appear so blameable to the marquis; but the honest rustic reproaches his son for his infamy, and the daughter rejects the offers of the nobleman. The infamous valet attempts to carry off his sister to the villa of the marquis; but they are met by Dulis, who rescues her. Deschamps is discharged for his want of dexterity, and a lettre de cachet procured for Lucas, the lover of Deschamps' sister. M. and madame Dunoir, informed of this infamous conduct, agree to break with the marquis; but an exempt arrests Dulis, the marquis is made minister, the abbé sent off to the seminary, and the minister and the archbishop begin their reign.

The interval is not accurately fixed; but it cannot be long, though every circumstance is altered. The daughter of Dunoir, to save her lover and father, had consented to marry the marquis: a very improbable supposition; for an all-powerful minister would never have married the daughter of a citizen, in love with another. The marriage was not, however, happy, since the marquis did not keep any one of his promises. Dulis was indeed liberated, but gone off, without leaving any traces of his rout; the marquis is separated from his wife, flies at the moment of the revolution, but returns to save the treble tax, is nearly ruined, and lives with his father-in-law, who kindly supports him. Deschamps is an aristocratic journalist: he thinks differently, he says, in his heart, but is resolved to be rich. All this he relates in a dialogue to La Fleur, the new servant of the marquis. The dialogue is pleasant,

‘*La Fl.* Quoi Deschamps journaliste! à peine fais tu lire.

‘*Deschamps.* Tu dis vrai; cependant je fais métier d’écrire.’

The marquis, who corresponds with Coblenz, holds an assembly of emigrants in the house of M. Dunoir, during his absence. He designs to carry off Henrietta, the second daughter of M. Dunoir, and to marry her to his nephew. The assembly quarrel, and an amusing scene, which must be particularly so to a Frenchman, follows: the nobles will have no parliaments, the parliaments no clergy, and each has different views. It has been often retailed in the democratic chroniques and journaux. The abbé, whom we saw in the first act sent to the seminary by the archbishop, is become a constitutional clergyman, is not less in love with Henrietta, but, like the others, he waits for a divorce. He disconcerts the designs of the marquis against her, discovers and drives the
assem-

assembly, observing that the intrigues of aristocracy are only fit for a farce.

In the third act, we reach the future; and the interval cannot be distant, because we have the same actors; and this should have suggested to the author, not to carry his 'Future' so far back. Voltaire once said, in the vivacity of trifling frolic,

' J'ai souhaite cent fois dans ma verte Jeunesse
De voir notre saint Pere, au fort de la Messe
Avec le grand lama dansant un Cotillon.'

The author, perhaps, mistaking this passage, or considering that Voltaire's writings are the present gospel of democracy, supposes the great lama to have fled to France, on a rebellion of his subjects, and to receive a pension of 1000 crowns from the republic. He is joined by the great mogul and the sophi, who come to see 'the fæderation of the universe.'—Such are the trifling fancies of M. Picard—Poor man! the present race of men will probably be extinct, before the lama hears of the revolution. The mogul is no more, and the sophi knows as little of Paris as of New South Wales. These whims may flatter the French, but make the author contemptible.

Karl Peter Thunbergs Reise, &c.

The Travels of Charles Peter Thunberg, a free Translation from the Swedish, by C. H. Grofkard, 8vo. Berlin.

THE difficulty we have felt, in procuring the Travels of Thunberg in their original language, have induced us to take up the German translation, which is reported to be faithful, and is, in general, free. The concise language of natural history, infests its votaries, and they carry dry, scientific discussion, into subjects from which it should be kept separate, and into descriptions where it is wholly misplaced. The travels of Linnæus himself, into Lapland and Westrogothia; those of Hasselquist in Egypt and Syria; Kalm's into America, and Osbeck's into China, are, in a greater or less degree, instances of this unpleasing manner, which the novelty of the scenes, and the interesting objects described, scarcely compensate for.

After having travelled through a part of Europe, and resided eight months at Paris, M. Thunberg repaired to Amsterdam, to embark in a vessel belonging to the East India Company of the United Provinces. He sailed with many letters of recommendation, to the lovers of botany and of gardening at the Cape. During his voyage, the medical knowledge he possessed,

was

was highly serviceable to the crew, which consisted of debilitated, or diseased soldiers, sold to the company by the crimps, and packed closely together in the vessel. The soil of the Cape consists of clay veined with red; and the colour of the veins is attributed to the mineral qualities of the waters, which tinge the clefts of the earth. The houses are low, to prevent their being injured by the high winds of that climate; and for the same reason the roofs are flat, composed of stones united by cement. The gardens are large, and well furnished with European plants. The garrison is in a wretched plight, and its appearance by no means military; but every citizen is a soldier, and obliged to take arms on the first signal.

European goods are sold from thirty to one hundred per cent. profit. Different species of reeds are employed for beds, chairs, paravents, &c. while the bamboo, the strongest of the reeds, supplies the inhabitants with ladders, and similar conveniences. Brooms and brushes are made of the *restio dichotomus*. There are no calcareous strata in this country; but their place is supplied by shells, mixed with the earth of the rivulets. They are washed till the shells remain unmixed, which are then burned.

During his residence, our author saw many Hottentots, inhabitants of the forests, brought to the Cape, on account of their having injured the plantations. They did not deny the charge, but recriminated on the European colonists, who had injured and driven them from their country. At the plantation styled Pearl, Mr. Thunberg saw the vines watered, as we water gardens. This management answers well, and the cutting is set very low, as they think the grapes are, on that account, much larger, a system which succeeds also in Europe. They sow barley for the horses; and, instead of dressing, let their lands be fallow for eight or ten years, which makes land more necessary, and the natives are consequently driven farther back into the country. The reeds, which arise in this interval, are burnt, and the ashes supply, as usual, a manure. It is pretty generally supposed on the continent, that ashes act only mechanically, and that the fires are more injurious than the ashes are advantageous. This however is by no means the case in England; but each soil has its peculiarities, and there is danger in making that a general rule which depends only on local circumstances. In some of the richest parts of England, dung makes the land too rank; but is it on this account useless as a manure?

After visiting the environs of the Cape, and examining the indigenous plants of the district with care, M. Thunberg prepared for his voyage to the interior parts of this southern region of Africa; but, as he depended more on the hospitality
of

of the natives than M. Vaillant had done, his preparations were not equally expensive. The Dutch company furnished him with the principal necessaries. As the objects of his journey are very different from those of other travellers, whose steps we have hitherto pursued; as his observations show what human ingenuity can do in desperate situations, what human nature can bear, and what expedients she has sometimes recourse to, we may follow him more particularly.

At Rothesand our author found the inhabitants eating the roots of *jus edulis**, and they are fond also of potatoes. The *albuca major* refreshed our travellers by the juice of its stalk. The *pharnacia mollugo* is excellent for fattening cattle. The roots of the *aponogeton distachyon* afford good nourishment; and the flowers of the plant, which swim on water, exhale a most agreeable perfume.

In the journey from Rothesand to Zwellendam, M. Thunberg observed a little mountain, called by the Dutch *Slangen Kop*, which is singular for affording a winter retreat to the serpents. They assemble here every autumn, and pass through a cleft to the internal part of the mountain, returning by the same passage to the forests in the spring. The heat of the baths at Zwellendam is very near the boiling point; yet our author found a species of *conferva* in it: the *myrica cordifolia* is very common in the neighbourhood. The Hottentots eat the berries; but the colonists boil them in water, to extract the oil, of which they make candles: it is a consistence between wax and suet.

From Zwellendam the travellers went through the valley *Ataque*, where there is a hord of free Hottentots. They anoint their bodies with grease, and sprinkle over it the dust of a *diosma*: on solemn occasions they adorn themselves with red and black bays. This race is composed of shepherds who subsist on milk, on bulbous and other roots. They taught M. Thunberg the effect of a plant, which they employ as a vesicatory. The vesicles which it forms continue to run a long time. Our author, who found it to be a species of *atragena*, gives it the trivial name of *vesicatoria*. The next spot noticed is the district of *Hountinqu*, whose inhabitants love to deck themselves and their furniture with small shells, which are either the *caprea monete* or the *nerita histrio*. The use of the *hassagaye*, their spear, which they are said to be able to throw a hundred feet; their falls for buffalos and elephants, &c. are well known. The ferocity and voracity of the buffalo they were witnesses of, having met one, who devoured two of their horses very quickly.

* It must be remembered, that we employ Linnæan names, unless we particularly distinguish any plant.

The Hottentots bake their bread under cinders, like many of the ancient inhabitants of Asia, and employ for food the *strelitzia* of Banks and Heritier, one of the most beautiful plants of the Cape, one of the grandest ornaments of our conservatories. The Italians, we know too, eat the roots of tulips, the most splendid of our flowers, which require not artificial heat; so that in two instances beauty and utility are more nearly allied than a cynic will allow. M. Thunberg confirms the remarks of the immense size of the female Hottentot's breasts. They sometimes hang down below the waist, and may be turned over the shoulder to suckle the child suspended at the back.

In the neighbourhood of the river Camtour, the frontier of Caffraria, our author remarked that the lion usually flies from man. The pith of a kind of palm, which he calls the *zanna caffra*, is employed by the Caffres as bread, after having been buried some time in the earth to ripen. They eat also the berries of the *euclea undulata*. The Caffres are described by M. Thunberg as by other travellers, taller, braver, and better made than the Hottentots. They employ the *Hassagaye*, and live on the product of their flocks. They hunt chiefly the buffalo; but they are generally numerous when engaged in this dangerous conflict.

His return to the Cape was accomplished without any remarkable accident. In passing by the forest, which the colonists call *Groot-vader-wald*, he saw many tall trees of the genus *calodendrom*, and not being able to obtain the branches with the flowers in any other way, he brought them down by bullets. The country is full of serpents, notwithstanding the secretary bird diminishes their number. He takes the serpents by the middle in his claws, and beats them with his wings, while he devours their flesh. In the colonies near the Cape our author blames the method of threshing the wheat. It is beat out by the stamping of horses, which spoils the straw, and injures the grain.

After this first expedition, M. Thunberg remained eight months at the Cape, and employed his time in philosophical excursions in the neighbourhood. In the company of M. Sonnerat he visited the top of Table Mountain, and found many rare plants of the orchis tribe there. He particularly notices the *difa grandiflora* (uniflora of Bergius), the *difa longicornis*, as well as his own *serapiæ tabularis* and *melalenca*, the flower of which is black and white. Table Mountain is 3350 French feet in height, and consists, like other promontories in the neighbourhood, of horizontal strata on the top, and oblique ones at the bottom. All the mountains of the Cape may be considered as distinct parts of one rock. They have all the

same direction, and towards the north, behind each mountain, the ground rises by degrees. Masses of rock, resting on beds of sand, conceal from the eyes of the vulgar the origin of mountains. The climate, as may be expected from its situation, is hot; but the winds often produce a sudden coldness, which generates colds, rheumatisms, and defluxions, the most frequent diseases. The farther the traveller advances to the internal parts, the colder, as usual, the weather becomes.

It is obvious, that the government of the Cape is mercantile; the commercial spirit pervades every department. The directors of the India company sell publicly the monopoly of wines, of bread, and other provisions, which greatly increases the price, particularly to strangers, who must purchase at the third hand. Those who are employed by the company are admirably dextrous in improving the emoluments of their places. Money does every thing, and many impediments are placed in the way of marriage, which money must remove. With the greatest attention to the ceremonies of religion, they show little zeal in propagating its knowledge. They leave the greater part of their slaves in the errors of paganism, and even refuse baptism to infants whose fathers are unknown; yet the company should not be included in this reproach, for they educate and instruct, at their own expence, the children of their own slaves: it is the clergy who are chiefly to blame. There is a singular disparity in their punishments. A pagan slave who attempts to run away, is punished with stripes; a christian, whether European or African, is hanged. Any foreign vessel, which anchors in the road, pays 500 Dutch florins, and every kind of provision is sold sufficiently dear. The wine, the best production of the country, is, we have said, monopolized. The wine of the Constantia plantation, situated behind Table Mountain, is called, by way of distinction, Cape Wine; and no other, from the neighbouring vineyards, however good, can obtain any better appellation than stomach wine. Our author describes, particularly, the methods of making the wine: the footstalks of the grape are carefully taken away, that they may not give the slightest acidity. Among the vegetables of Europe, cabbages and almonds have succeeded best. The colonists, like the natives, live on their flocks; and the former are scarcely more enlightened in managing them successfully than the latter. Venison is in profusion; and the eggs of the ostriches form a considerable branch of commerce, though not a lucrative one; for the colonists are obliged to furnish them at a low price to the company, who alone derive any profit from them. They form excellent food as they are dressed in this country.

Under the article of Residence at the Cape, M. Thunberg

mentions the plants which he had found in Africa, not before noticed. The olive is frequent, but its fruit rarely ripens, and no oil is drawn from it. The *myrica quercifolia* furnishes food to the Hottentots, and oil to the colonists: the common laurel furnishes impenetrable hedges. The *morœa undulata*, the *ixia cinnamomœa*, the *mirabilis dichotoma*, open and shut regularly, and serve the colonists for clocks. Others supply them with barometers: when the flowers of the iris and *galaxia* do not open in the morning, there will be rain during the day. The sandy ground is covered in the autumn, with the *gladiolus plicatus*, *antholyza ringens*, *hyobanche coccinea*, the *amaryllis ciliaris*, the *hæmanthus coccineus*, and *puniceus*, immediately on the surface, without stalks and without leaves. The leaves and stalks most commonly appear in the spring, and disappear before autumn. M. Thunberg has only seen the *gardenia florida* in the gardens, and supposes it to be brought from the East Indies: the Chinese use it in dying yellow. The banyan tree, *musa paradisiaca*, flowers very rarely at the Cape, and its fruit seldom ripens. The root of the *curcuma longa*, which in Europe is only a dye, enters as an ingredient into all the Eastern ragouts. A considerable number of the African plants are medicinal to the inhabitants; but these details are of little importance to the European reader: it is enough, if he knows the properties of the plants of his own soil.

No part of natural history escapes M. Thunberg. He describes a large ape often found on Table Mountain, whose sagacity and intelligence are uncommon. He rolls pieces of the rock on the passengers, and, if stones are thrown at him, he catches them, or escapes the blow by his celerity. It is difficult to kill him with a musket; but its fire generally drives him away. He often robs the gardens, and his rapacity is as formidable as his malice. Many horns of the rhinoceros are found at the Cape, and wonderful qualities are attributed to them. The *pelicanus onocrotalus* is by no means uncommon. The *lanius collaris* of the Cape, treats the flies as the *lanius collurio* treats the May bugs in Europe; impaling those it cannot eat, on the points of the shrubs in the hedges. The *merops apiafter*—bee-eater, is found at the Cape; and the *carabus decemguttatus*, like the *carabus crepitans*, exhales a sharp vapour, which affects the eyes of its pursuers, and facilitates its escape. The Hottentots and Caffres, with their utensils, weapons, &c. are described at some length; and he remarks the singularity, noticed by Mechel among the negroes, that the cicatrices of the wounds are, at first, white, and then become black or swarthy.

What the author remarked, in consequence of a shipwreck that

that occurred at the Cape, does little credit to the police of the city. Every attempt was made to save the cargo, but no attention was paid to the crew, though they were Dutchmen. Sentinels were even placed to prevent individuals from coming to their assistance. One single person (Woltemal) alone disobeyed this inhuman order. He reached the shore, and saved many lives, but was, at last, a prey to the waves. He left a son, who petitioned in vain for the little post enjoyed by his father. It is true, the directors of the company ordered, that the children of Woltemal should be rewarded; but, before the order reached the Cape, the son died of grief and disappointment.

The second journey, in company with Mr. Maffon, the king's gardener at Kew, we shall notice as soon as possible.

Eloge funebre de Louis seize, par M. le Noir.

Funeral Oration on the Death of Louis XVI. delivered in London in the Presence of many respectable People, on the 27th of March, the 2d, 11th, and 23d, of April 1793. By M. le Noir, French Teacher.

THE strain of declamation, of which this Oration entirely consists, is much less affecting than the simple historical recital of the event which has given birth to it. We cannot, therefore, say, *materiam superabat opus*. The concluding paragraph will give an idea of the spirit with which M. le Noir writes :

‘ Monstres ! recueillez donc maintenant les fruits de votre dernier forfait ! et toi ciel vengeur, Ah ! garde toi d'exhaucer les pieuses supplications de l'auguste martyre qui vient d'être immolé ! Songe qu'il y va de ta justice ! assez long tems cette race impie a nié ta providence, et bravé tes foudres. Que tardes-tu à les lancer ? hâtez vous tous, des abîmes de la destruction, vous fléaux désolateurs ! la voix du sang innocent vous appelle : frappez, écrasez toutes ces têtes coupables. qu'une vengeance affreuse laisse après elle un exemple mémorable et terrible de l'intérêt que prend le ciel au destin des Rois ; et de cette justice sévère, qui attend les nations assez criminelles, pour se fouiller du sang précieux de ces représentans sacrés de la divinite ici bas.’

‘ Monsters ! now then receive the fruits of your last crime ; and, O thou avenging heaven, take care not to listen to the pious supplications of the august martyr whom they have sacrificed ! Think that thy justice is concerned ; too long has

this impious race denied thy providence, and defied thy thunderbolts. Why dost thou delay to launch them? Hasten, all ye abysses of destruction, ye desolating plagues! the voice of innocent blood invites you; strike; crush all these guilty heads. Let dreadful vengeance leave a striking and memorable example of the interest which is taken by heaven in the destiny of kings, and of the severe justice which awaits nations, criminal enough to imbrue their hands in the precious blood of these sacred representatives of the divinity here below.'

However we may condemn the atrocious conduct of the French, it is impossible to read, without horror, such an address from a mortal to the God of peace and love.

Exposition, &c. par A. R. Dillon.

A Short Account of the Principles and Events which have had the most Influence upon the French Revolution, adapted to the Use of Foreigners, by Arthur Roger Dillon.

THE author of this little tract very justly says, that it is difficult to suppose he can speak with perfect impartiality, of a revolution of which he has been the victim. His readers, however, ought to consider that there is scarcely a man in France of any character, who has not been either an agent or a sufferer in it, and often both. As, therefore, perfect impartiality is not to be expected, the only way by which we can gain a competent knowledge of the springs which have moved such mighty changes, is to read on both sides. It is not that this little tract contains any thing that can properly be called new information, but it is written with spirit, and by a man acquainted with the series of events. He numbers among the predisposing causes of the revolution, the influence of philosophy, favoured by the court and the great, while it had not yet descended among the mass of the people; the weakness of the king, whom he calls the first proselyte to revolution principles, and the predilection of M. Necker for the *tiers etat*. With the last-mentioned minister he is very angry; and treats him with a severity which he might have spared, if he had considered that, if M. Necker was mistaken, all the virtuous part of France were mistaken with him, and that he, probably, feels more heartfelt anguish for the late proceedings, than the most violent aristocrat amongst them all. He goes on to give an account of the several clubs which have had so much influence in affairs; the club Breton, the parent of the Jacobins; the Société Fraternelle; the club of 89, and the Feuil-

Feuillans, containing the moderate party. The Cordeliers, the school of Marat, and the Capucins and club Monarchique, in favour of royalty. He endeavours to vindicate the emigration of the nobility, and shows himself, in the passage which we shall quote, not a little hurt by the indifference with which they have been treated, even by those European powers who have made their cause a pretext for interfering in the affairs of France. They ought to have known it from the uniform testimony of history. The party that brings against its country a foreign power, may injure its country—may even ruin it, but will rarely serve itself.

‘ Guidée par des princes généreux & braves, la noblesse s’est présentée par-tout où elle a cru pouvoir être utile ; si elle n’a jamais été dans le cas de déployer son courage & sa force, les causes de cette inaction sont cachées dans la profondeur des secrets des cabinets ; mais toujours sera-t-il vrai de dire que, si le squelette de la noblesse Française continue d’errer sans appui, & sans secours, sur la surface du globe, cette leçon vivante apprendra aux hommes combien la cause de la royauté est belle, puisqu’elle a motivé de si grands sacrifices ; & combien celle des rois est ingrate, puisqu’ils ont laissé subsister d’aussi grands malheurs !’

Under the conduct of princes, whose generosity is equal to their courage, the French nobility has presented itself wherever it perceived a prospect of being useful. If it has never found an opportunity of signalizing its valour and displaying its energy, the causes of its inaction are concealed amongst the profound secrets of cabinets ; this, however, we may assert, that if the skeleton of the French nobility continues to wander without protection and without support, over the face of the globe, it will teach men, by a living lesson, both how noble a cause is that of royalty, which has inspired such mighty sacrifices, and how ungrateful a service is that of kings, who permit the existence of such heavy calamities.

Sermon pour la Solemnité du jeune prêché dans la Chapelle Helvétique, le 19^me Avril, 1793. Par M. Abauzit.

Fast Sermon, preached in the Helvetic Chapel, April 19th, 1793. By the Rev. M. Abauzit.

THIS is a sensible and moderate discourse. The author recommends to his congregation a spirit of union, of brotherly affection, and of piety, which he enforces by motives drawn from the peculiar circumstances of their situation.

From the same circumstances, he exhorts to that line of conduct, which prudence and propriety point out to *the stranger who sojourneth in the land*, namely, a quiet and orderly submission to the laws of that country which has granted him an asylum, a studious care to avoid every thing which may disturb the public peace, and a delicate reserve on all subjects of political dispute, in which, as a foreigner, his interference is certainly not demanded. This is undoubtedly sound advice; and we cannot help observing, that if such be the demeanor which foreigners residing in a kingdom, and consequently liable to be deeply affected by its political regulations, ought to hold, much more ought foreigners, out of a kingdom, to avoid such interference with the concerns of a nation with which they have nothing to do.

Mr. Abauzit very justly reprobates those prayers for the slaughter of our enemies, which both parties are so fond of using, and puts us in mind that, as Christians, we can only pray for peace and the happiness of mankind, in whatever way it may please providence to establish it.

*Lettres ecrites de Barcelonne a un Zelateur de la Liberte, qui Voyage en Allemagne, avec quelques reflexions & des details Philosophiques sur les Mœurs, usages & opinions des Espagnols, par M. Ch***, Citoyen François. 8vo. Paris.*

Letters written from Barcelona, &c.

THE French emigrants have been often heard of, and their situation in different kingdoms is sufficiently known. In Spain, they were received with apparent cordiality, and a real distrust. They obtained no assistance, and were confined to a certain district, from which it was impossible for them to escape. Our author, who styles himself a citizen of France, gives an account of the situation of the frontiers of Spain, in March 1792, of the cordon formed there, the 'pretended' preparations for war, and of the situation of the emigrants. We shall chiefly confine our remarks to the latter part, the manners and customs of the Spaniards; a nation, though often visited, little known, and of whom we have received many fallacious accounts. Nothing is more false, says our author, than the usual stories of Spanish gallantries and jealous husbands. The Spanish ladies do not seek after men, have no duennas, and love monks only because something must be loved, and their country produces nothing else. They do not leave their slippers at the door, for they have other methods of keeping the husbands at a distance; and the latter, if we except a few jealous freaks, chiefly in the provinces, are more com-

complaisant than many husbands educated on the banks of the Seine, where the wives change appearances incessantly.

Our traveller, who resided fifteen years at Madrid, and speaks wholly from observation, thinks that politicians are mistaken, when they suppose the Spaniards ready to shake off the yoke of despotism and its corner stone, superstition, in imitation of the French: they are three ages behind their neighbours in this respect. He regrets being able to speak little in their favour; but adds, 'it is owing to their ancestors, to the four Philips, who reigned successively over Spain, before the time of the weak dastardly Charles, the last of their race; to the Bourbons, who succeeded them, and who had not resolution enough to drive from the throne the fanaticism they found on it; to the kings of each dynasty, who have exposed the nation to the numerous misfortunes which superstition engenders; who have permitted the bloody inquisitors to seize the sceptres of the monarchs, which become in their hands an empty toy; who have suffered the haughty Spaniards under Charles V. the first nation in Europe, to degenerate into the meanest, in consequence of its childish devotion.

On his arrival at Gironne, a place formerly very strong, but which would not now deserve a serious attack, M. Ch. found that the city had a more certain defence than bastions and entrenchments — 'it is the bottle of St. Donatus, of which I will give the history in a very few words, and it will give a good idea of the superstition of the Spaniards, to whom the principal virtue, which the priests inculcate, is a blind credulity. In the time of the Moors, Gironne had been attacked, and was on the point of falling into the hands of the enemy, when the good inhabitants thought of recommending themselves to Saint Donatus, who sent such a terrible swarm of flies on the infidels, as forced them to raise the siege. A holy hermit advised them to preserve these precious flies, to be employed in similar circumstances, if they should happen, and offered on the part of St. Donatus, by whom he pretended to be inspired, to inclose them all in a bottle, promising that the saint would preserve them there, which he executed; they say, with wonderful address. They show the bottle, where they pretend the flies have been inclosed many ages. They cannot be distinguished; but no matter: the precious phial is still preserved in the cathedral, and they threaten to open it, if the French arrive.

Much has been said of a cordon of troops on the frontiers of Spain, and of an army which is assembled, as well as the great preparations made against the progress of the French revolution. M. Ch. tells us the state of these mighty efforts at the time of his writing. 'They told an absurd lye, when

they said that Spain had sent to the frontiers of France, twenty or thirty thousand men, or as some clubs, who raise armies at no expence, asserted, forty thousand. The person who now writes, has seen with his own eyes, and heard with his own ears; and he asserts, that though the court of Madrid should be determined on war, they have yet made no apparent preparation. It is not a nation which acts suddenly and decidedly: the 'ifs' and 'buts' have never an end, or soon revive. The foundation of the cordon is this: The Spaniards fear for their persons and their country, and no person fears like a Spaniard. They supposed that vagabonds would spread over the country, and commit excesses, which might undoubtedly have happened, without some troops. They consist, or ought to consist, of six thousand men, if the regiments were complete; but a complete Spanish regiment is a wonder, for no such has ever been seen. The cordon extends forty leagues, and is in four divisions: the first at Puicerda, the second at Giroune, the third at Figuera, and the fourth extends towards Navarre. In the whole, it is composed of three regiments of cavalry, two regiments of dragoons, one of infantry, some hundreds of matrosses, called Wall's Favorites, and two regiments of matrosses yet to be raised.

Our author attributes to the Theological College, the bankruptcy of those who undertook the canal of Murcia, who have failed for some millions of reals. He adds—'the history of this undertaking, the loan and means of reimbursement, contain some circumstances too curious to be concealed. The loan was at first a kind of lottery, under the protection of the royal authority, and for the blanks they gave 7½ per cent. annuity. On the word of Charles III. whose word was worth something, the loan was filled: the holders of tickets were obliged to make up the deficiency, and the holders of blanks disposed of them at a loss. Many strangers speculated and formed capitals. There was a time for making up the deficiency, and no one could do it under 100 livres. The renters enjoyed their advantages peaceably till 1791, the æra of the 'royal resolution,' which, after the theologians had pronounced the loan to be usurious, authorised the undertakers to reimburse the renters, who would not engage anew at three per cent. giving up the four and half, which they had enjoyed since their first establishment. The king allowed this injustice. After describing the national dress, and the insurrection in 1766, occasioned by the proscription of flapped hats, when the king was obliged to fly from Madrid, our traveller comes to the dress of the ladies. 'Women of every class, he observes, are obliged to wear the national dress, and are in danger of insult, if they walk on foot in any other. In their

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carriages, they dress in the French manner, and sometimes exaggerate our fashions in a manner truly ridiculous. Nothing is more insipid, more insignificant, and less favourable to the numerous beauties of the Spanish women, than the dress which custom has imposed. Suppose a woman with a long black petticoat, which they call a *basquina*, and a tablecloth on the head, called a veil, which conceals the shape, and renders every one's size uniform, and you will have an exact idea of their dress. The petticoat is of silk, and, in full dress, of mohair. The veil (*mantilla*) is white, and of muslin. The waistcoat, under the veil, is well adapted to the celestial shape of the Spanish beauties, and they contrive to show it under the veil. This they choose originally very thin, and have different ways of opening, managing, and arranging it, in order to render the shape more conspicuous, adding to the poignancy by the assumed air of mystery. There is a particular dress adopted by some women, called the *habit*. A disorder, a fit of devotion, a wish to bear the colours of her lover, or some other motive, leads them to make a vow to wear the habit of St. Francis, whose votaries are very numerous, and much celebrated in Spain. You may then see pretty girls running along the street, with a petticoat of the colour and stuff of the Franciscan habit. You see them tie on publicly the famous cord of St. Francis; and this emblem of abstinence and humility, is often the girdle of Venus.

In Spain, as in all other catholic countries, the cathedrals are very rich; but the riches of the cathedral of Barcelona are, in one respect, singular. In one of the cloisters there is a kind of menagerie, where there are some pelicans, which the simpletons of Barcelona (for there are such every where) visit on Sundays, to observe whether, as has been said, they feed their young with their blood. The menagerie and birds are maintained by a legacy left for this purpose, by a canon. The Catalans were not able to explain the motive of so peculiar a bequest; but, perhaps, the good man was fond of animals, and thought it as well to maintain swans and pelicans, as monks.

It has been said, that the Spaniards are not more distinguished for their love of labour, than for their industry; though the contrary opinion has been generally circulated. Let us attend to our traveller's remarks on this subject. 'I must observe, by the way, that there is but one kind of oil in Spain, and that it is detestable, though the Spaniards possess the finest olive-trees in Europe; but they know not how to extract the oil, and are not grateful for any information on the subject. The same is used *for* every thing, and *in* every thing. Tell them that, with the best wool in the universe, they cannot make

make cloth; that, with the softest silk, they have no silk manufactures; that their wines, which are the best in Europe, contract a disagreeable flavour, by the little attention paid to the management; that, though masters of the gold of America, they are beggars; they will turn to you with a contemptuous smile, and say that their cloths are finer than those of England, and of a more beautiful colour; that they find it advantageous to sell their silk raw; that wine, to be good, must taste of pitch; and that *we* carry away all their gold.'

An emigrant, who had borrowed some money of his companion, killed him in a duel, because he refused to lend him more. He was refused burial for many reasons, and, among others, because he had not a bull, the necessary accomplishment to every individual in Spain, to enable him to eat or drink, to abstain from either, to go to bed, or sleep in his chair. No matter what it is: a bull must be had. As the history of this precious adjunct is not generally known, we shall transcribe it from our author.

'To understand his misfortune, we must observe, that the church refuses its last offices to every one not furnished with the Bulla de la Cruzada. They refuse to bury him, if, under his pillow, at the moment of carrying away the corpse, it is not found. This bull, which opens the gates of heaven to the greatest villain, is the most infamous tax which any nation has yet experienced. It began in the days of ignorance and fanaticism, when millions of Europeans went to Palestine, to kill or be killed. The court of Rome, which under this pretext, so often ransomed the different powers of Europe, suggested, in 1509, this bull of the cruzade, to Ferdinand king of Arragon, who was engaged in a war against the Moors of Africa. The pope ordered, that every good catholic, who expected the indulgence of heaven, should be provided with one of these bulls: the priests inculcated it as a duty, and it has since brought a considerable income to Rome, who has in Spain a person that farms the revenue. The price is fixed yearly by the pope's nuncio, and is never less than twelve sous (about six-pence) or above a piastre, because every one is taxed according to his supposed fortune. With this patent, he is cleared of those crimes, which the pope alone or the bishops can absolve. He may eat eggs and milk in Lent, and other foods at different times, according to its tenour. Government does not absolutely order the subjects of his catholic majesty to buy this bull; but, as I have said, the priests refuse the last consolations to those who neglect or despise the precaution; and, in Spain, no one is wise or bold enough to brave ecclesiastical censures.'

These Travels are written with freedom, but not always with

with elegance. The idioms and the words are sometimes Spanish, and, in some passages, the work is not easily intelligible. Its substance is, however, pleasing and interesting. The author manages, with address, the weapon of ridicule and the shafts of irony, more poignant instruments than abuse or declamation, which disgust without instructing. He quotes facts, of which he has been for many years a witness; and we think his Travels may be read with as much advantage as pleasure, as much confidence as interest.

Histoire de la Conspiration du 10 Aout, 1792, &c.

The History of the Conspiracy of the 10th of August, 1792, by L. C. Bigot de Sainte Croix, Minister of foreign Affairs to his most Christian Majesty. Edwards. London.

THOUGH the date of this pamphlet is from London, yet as it entirely relates to the affairs of the continent, and is also written in a foreign language, it may be fairly classed among the foreign publications. M. Bigot de St. Croix was one of the most faithful servants of the late, ever to be lamented, and unfortunate Louis.

We have before had occasion to remark, the total want of proof on the part of the republicans, with respect to the designs of the court. That a correspondence might have existed between the court of France and the combined powers and emigrants, is possible; but it is singular that no trace of such a correspondence, at least with any criminal intention, could be produced even on the trial of the king. On the other hand, M. de St. Croix, in the pamphlet before us, has been very successful in developing the criminal designs of the Jacobins, and, we think, has very successfully proved that their leaders, Petion, Brissot, Manuel, &c. had long concerted a plan for the overthrow of the monarchy, and for seizing to themselves the supreme authority of the state; and that whatever might have previously been the views of the court, the preparations within the Tuilleries on the 8th and 9th of August, were purely defensive.

What an awful and instructive lesson do these events, compared with the present state of affairs in France, force upon the mind! We see in the present pamphlet an actual conspiracy entered into by a set of men, for the express purpose of overturning the established government, and investing themselves with the whole power of the state; and in the course of a few months, we see these very men in the same predicament with those whom they had extruded.—Some of them massacred, some in a state of exile; and some, like the family of their abused and insulted sovereign, languishing in dungeons,
and

and awaiting the sentence of a severe and unjust tribunal. We see others reaping the whole fruits of their crimes, and enriched by the atrocities they had committed.

The following is M. de St. Croix's account of the principal transactions in the Tuilleries, for some days previous to the fatal attack, and includes some of the facts relative to the plot concerted by the Jacobins, for the ruin of the king and his party.

'The next, and all the succeeding days, the multiplied accounts, and the certain indications which reached us, permitted us no longer to doubt that the most horrible plot was ready to burst upon us.

'It was proposed to their majesties to depart and to go as far as twenty leagues from the capital; the means for their escape were facilitated, and all was ready; but they constantly rejected every project of leaving Paris. In the mean time the danger became more pressing; every hour, every moment, seemed to bring with it some new disaster; no succours were proposed, cartridges even were wanting. Some person proposed that they should be procured by means which were violent, but which might be of utility, as they might perhaps serve to divert the attention of the insurgents. Their majesties rejected this advice, and it was resolved that no resources should be employed except those which could be used without violence and without commotion; that in the interior of the palace, and in the exterior court, some battalions of the national guards should be assembled together, with a party of such of the Swiss as had not yet been dispersed by the decree. In fine, it was intended to place, at different situations, barriers which might offer a little resistance to the first efforts of the assailants. Such in fact was the conspiracy of the court.

'The number of troops united for the defence of the place, amounted not to more than from 15 to 1800 men.

'At eight in the morning their majesties sent for the mayor, to inform him of these dispositions.'

'Every account brought us the assurance that the castle would be attacked during that night.

'One of my colleagues and myself, were only able to procure on the 9th, at five o'clock in the evening, a faithful copy of the various plans of the plot; they differed in some minute particulars, but their agreement in almost every material circumstance reduced them into one.

'The iron cage, in which these ferocious wretches proposed to inclose the queen, and to parade with it through the streets of the capital; the project of conducting it afterwards to the

Hotel

Hotel de la Force; the intèntion of leading the king to the Hotel de Ville, and thence to the Temple, (for confinement in the Temple was already in agitation) or to imprison him in the house of Beaumarchais, in order to expose him at pleasure to the frantic rage of the Fauxbourg:—all these atrocities entered into all their plans.

‘We believed it our duty to conceal the knowledge of these circumstances from the king, and to refuse it likewise to the entreaties of the queen: though she was prepared for every thing by her misfortunes, and superior to every thing by her character.

‘We printed in haste the result of the different plots, with these words, only as an advertisement: “Frenchmen, great crimes are upon the point of being committed; to unveil to you the plot, is sufficient to annihilate it. READ.”

‘Our project, equally unknown to both their majesties, was to descend at the moment of attack into the courts of the castle, there to read in an audible voice, by the light of a flambeau, this formidable account, before all the assembled troops, and afterwards to distribute to the croud a great number of copies of it.

‘We promised ourselves the most important consequences from this step; and what effect in the moment of combat would it not have produced in every mind! Every thing then concurred to its success.

‘How many motives would then have been presented to excite the troops!—not to be acquainted with the crime till the instant of its execution; to hold in their hands the paper which revealed it; and to expect to read, on the succeeding morning, a minute detail of the assault over which they should have triumphed! Add to this the presence of the king, the obscurity of the night, that addition which these circumstances make to every impression!

‘Every thing would then have animated, every thing would have confirmed our hopes.

‘The disposition of every mind was then excellent; the good battalions were not yet withdrawn; there was no mixture, no medley, no disunion; but every heart and arm were disposed to our service.

‘With what bitterness shall I regret, during the remainder of my life, that this attack was deferred! The shades of the night might have been for this time, at least, the assistant of justice; but vice, on this occasion, preferred the light of day, the splendor of which it has been accustomed, for a long time, no longer to fear.’

The account of the departure of their majesties to the hall
of

of the convention is truly pathetic, and evinces that, whatever may have been the faults of Marie Antoinette, she is neither deficient in greatness of mind, nor strength of affection.

‘ The procureur Syndic then entered with the members of the department into the chamber of the king, where the royal family and the ministers only were assembled.

‘ After having depicted the urgency of the danger in the most true, and most alarming colours, the unfaithfulness of one part of the troops, the corruption of others, the threats of an immediate and terrible irruption, only one means of safety appeared to offer; which was, that the king should surrender himself directly to the protection of the legislative body.

‘ Twice he was interrupted in his discourse by a marked disapprobation; at last, beginning again to speak with still more heat and vehemence, and addressing himself to the queen, he exclaimed, “ Madam, the moments are precious; one minute, perhaps one second, and it is impossible to answer for the life of the king, for those of your majesty, and of his children.”

‘ Oppressed by the weight of these last arguments, and pointing to the king and her children; “ Ah! well, said the queen, it is the last of sacrifices, but you see the objects of it.”

‘ You who are wives and mothers, accuse her if ye can!’

As it would be useless to exhibit a complete abstract of this pamphlet, the principal events being familiar to most readers through the ordinary channels, we have been obliged to content ourselves with such extracts as appeared most characteristic of its contents.

OCCASIONAL RETROSPECT

OF

FOREIGN LITERATURE.

FRANCE.

THE state of this unhappy country, now ruled by ignorance and anarchy, cannot be supposed to afford many materials for our Journal. In a land, where it has been publicly proposed that all libraries should be abolished, more is to be feared for the loss, than hoped for the advancement of literature. The peculiar difficulties attending, at this singular period, the importation of the foreign Journals, and the domestic delays which some of them have experienced, offer additional causes for any defect under which this department of our work may now labour.

A publication has appeared at Paris, in four volumes large octavo, intituled, *Le Pour et le Contre*, &c. or, *For and Against*: being a complete collection of the opinions, pronounced in the convention, during the procedures against Louis XVI; to which are added, all the authentic papers belonging to that process. The long extracts, given from this work in the foreign Journals, offer little new; and we shall not attempt to direct the reader's attention to a subject upon which all Europe has already judged against France.

Shakspeare's *Othello* has been translated into French, with alterations, and an additional episode, by M. Ducis; and produced at the Theatre de la Republique, with considerable applause, though the catastrophe appeared too striking, even to a modern French audience.

A French translation of the philosophical works of Hemsterhuis, has been published in two volumes, 8vo. Translations from the Dutch are uncommon in France, but Hemsterhuis is highly esteemed by his countrymen.

Of Milton's *Paradise Lost*, a splendid edition has appeared at Paris, in two volumes, 4to. French and English, with twelve plates printed in colours, after designs of Schall. This publication

lication aspires to great elegance, both in the typography and in the plates.

Alcibiade Enfant, jeune Homme, Homme fait, et Veillard, Paris, four volumes, 8vo. with plates. Plutarch has bequeathed to us an excellent biography of Alcibiades: professor Meisner translated this life; and has only, so to speak, put into action, or dialogue, the recital of the Greek biographer. The idea of the German author was only to compose a series of scenes, in which the Greek costume should be preserved, and the whole rendered agreeable. In the present work, the plan of Meisner is followed. It is divided into simple and familiar dialogues, diversified with interesting and moral episodes; and offers, in the first part, the origin of Alcibiades, several anecdotes of his infancy and early youth, his intercourse with Socrates, his love for his instructress Aspasia, &c. In the second part, are contained the amorous life of Alcibiades: he is conqueror at the Olympic games; a libertine, but a good father and a good friend, eloquent, magnificent, but very artful; his first disputes with Nicias, his marriage. The third part paints his political life, intermingled with gallant adventures; his ambition, which excites Sparta to wish for his presence, and Athens to expell him from her bosom; his misfortune at Sparta; and his flight into Thrace, where he lays the foundation of a kingdom: he retires to Tisaphernes, whose friendship he gains, and becomes the most effeminate of mortals. In fine, the fourth part presents a succinct picture of his warlike life; he is preserved from death by the Athenian women, his glorious recall and return to Athens, the death of Socrates, the ruin of Athens, Alcibiades dies in wishing to save his country. This work is instructive, moral, and amusing.

Les Premices d'Annette, 8vo. Paris. A little novel of the amatory kind, not without merit.

La Republique Françoise, en 84 Departmens, &c. Paris. This is a geographical dictionary of France, with an atlas, containing a map of each department. It is to be followed by a general geographical dictionary of Europe, in two volumes, 8vo. containing a thousand pages each, in double columns.

M. Mercier has published at Paris, his *Fragmens de Politique et d'Histoire*, or Political and Historical Fragments, in three volumes, 8vo. The style of this author is full of modern corruption, and ambitious of gigantic ornament. His present work is replete with the fanatical philosophy of France, which affects to destroy all, and to build nothing; and to prefer theoretic truths, to truths established by the moral experience of ages. Philosophy and liberty shall ever have our altars and our vows; but in those very writings, which pretend to

destroy

destroy prejudice, we see much of prejudice and little of evidence; and philanthropy induces us to regard anarchy, assuming the sacred name of freedom, as the last of evils.

Mr. Necker's Reflections, presented to the French nation, on the procedure against Louis XVI. display his usual ability. He repells, with great force, the charges brought against this unfortunate monarch. Among other proofs, he produces the following letter of M. de Lessart, who was so soon to perish at Versailles, to him, in order to shew that the war against France was solely excited by the rashness of the national assembly.

Orleans, 8th of July, 1792.

‘ You would have heard from me, before now, if I had had any thing new concerning myself to announce; but I am nearly in the same situation in which I was at the date of my last letter. I begin nevertheless to believe, that all possible difficulties are exhausted; the communication of the papers which were necessary, will soon enable me to begin to labour at my defence. But I shall regret, all my life, that it could not appear sooner; for it will be curious, not as to what concerns myself, but as shewing what passed in foreign events; as demonstrating that they had no intention to declare war against us; as proving, beyond possibility of replies, that we provoked the war, that we began it, that we aroused all Europe against us. All this might have produced some effect; and it is not one of my least troubles, to have found it impossible to procure to myself this little relief, &c.’

The third volume, 8vo. of Bonneville's History of Modern Europe, from the Irruption of the Northern Nations to our own Time, is published at Paris. This work exceeds not the mediocrity of many similar productions.

In a publication, intituled, *Du Credit public en France, &c.* On the public Credit of France, or Means of Reunion proposed to all the Inhabitants of the French Republic, for the Increase of public Credit, for the Support of private Fortunes, and for the absolute Destruction of all Kinds of Jobbing. Paris. 1793. M. Gouget Deshnaides, has given magnificent promises, difficult to be realized. His comparative remarks on the origin of great fortunes in England, Holland, and France, we shall translate.

‘ The origin of great fortunes, among the English and Dutch, proceeds from commerce, from industry, from rural œconomy; and thence the mass of the people profits by them: while the origin of the fortunes of most of the French proprietors arises from operations on government; and they, on the contrary, could not have been established, except in

heightening the wants of the laborious class of the people. The former have built, the latter have destroyed; the former have shed the dew of plenty over the land; the latter have, as it were, acted with a design to render it barren: the former have called industry to their assistance; the latter have exiled it, in refusing all succour to it, while only a small aid was required to enable it to support itself. They have never circulated their capitals, except in muddy and subterraneous canals; and when jobbing and avidity called them forth, they never appeared on the surface, but, surrounded with a pestilential vapour, bearing death to all it touched.'

M. Lequinio, a member of the convention, has published a work, intituled, *Les Préjugés détruits, or Prejudices destroyed*. Paris, 1793, 8vo. To combat prejudices is the passion of this age of improvement: M. Lequinio goes further, and pretends to have destroyed them. He begins with a definition of prejudice, which, says he, 'is a general error, which is supported without a wish to reflect upon it, or to get rid of it, because it is believed to be a truth. Every nation has its prejudices; even every individual has his own; and their grossness is often so strange, that, when they are destroyed, it becomes difficult to believe that they could have existed among beings who assume the honour of thinking. There was formerly, for example, the prejudice of astrology, which for many ages had a splendid reign. There was the prejudice of ghosts, and, however ridiculous it may seem, it still exists in many countries.' M. Lequinio's prejudices are very numerous; among them appear glory, honour, eloquence! *Nil sapientia odiosius nimio acumine*. His attack upon royalty, and the unfortunate royal family of France in particular, is balanced by a painting of the first assembly, in which the colours seem as just as they are dark. In a note, he informs us that, at a moment when a complete change took place in the government and political system of France, it appeared to him a matter of utility, to describe the views which human passions might introduce, in order that they might be shunned: the instant was not to be lost; and whatever consequences calumny may torment itself in drawing from this chapter, he flatters himself that his good intentions will remain unsuspected by real patriots. He thus begins his delineation: 'Silence and philosophy, decent deportment, complaisance in hearing, good sense in the orators, the detestation of self-interest for that of the public, patience in acquiring knowledge, slowness and coolness in discussion, respect of the galleries for the representatives of the people; a multitude, in fine, animated by one desire of general good, and completely abandoning all little private interests,

terests, of whatever nature they may be, in the contemplation that the happiness of twenty-five millions of men is in their hands.

'Is it not thus that ye regard this assembly, ye who behold it at a distance, or who rather do not behold it at all? Such is the brilliant prospect, which your imagination traces to you. Approach, and the fantom disappears.'

The real picture is of great length, presenting characters without names, but evidently drawn from life.

From the press of Didot has issued, in one volume, 8vo. a translation of Theocritus into French, with the Greek text; a Latin Version, critical Notes, and a Preliminary Discourse, by Professor Gail, of the College of France. The discourse resembles Chabanon's Essay on Theocritus, and treats of the origin and progress of pastoral poetry: an able parallel is also given between Theocritus and Virgil. But the translation is hardly equal to that of Chabanon.

La Mythologie, &c. Mythology rendered familiar, with 108 coloured Figures. Paris, 1793, 12 vols. in 18mo. An elegant little work.

Politique de tous les Cabinets de l'Europe, &c. Paris, 1793, two vols. 8vo. This work contains authentic pieces concerning the secret correspondence of the count de Broglio, some memoirs of the count de Vergennes, of M. Turgot, of the cardinal de Rohan, &c.

Les Vieilles du Couvent, &c. Paris, 1793, 12mo. This little poem proceeds too much on the principles of the *Erotica Biblien* of Mirabeau the Elder, to have much claim to the praise of decency.

Mercier's little work, called *Isotime*, Paris, 1793, 32mo. has added nothing to his reputation.

Zena, or Jealousy and Happiness, a Sentimental Dream, by M. Villeterque, is a pleasing trifle.

Marsallier's *Connoisseur*, a Comedy, in three Acts, acted in 1792, is published. It has met with the applause of the stage and of the closet.

ITALY.

Le Lucerne ed i Candelabre d'Ercolaneo, &c. The Lamps and Candelabra found in Herculaneum, designed after the Antique, and engraved with Explanations. Naples, from the Royal Press, 1792, folio. This work may be either regarded as detached, or as forming the eighth volume of a new edition of the *Antiquities of Herculaneum*. The plates amount to 93, exclusive of tail-pieces; the text is of 340 pages. The works of Bartoli, Passeri, and others, on the ancient lamps,

have in some degree anticipated the subject; and this volume is not so interesting as the preceding ones. Nevertheless connoisseurs will find many things worthy of their attention. The beauty and variety of the design, the elegance of the work, the richness of the ornaments, all announce genius, and the perfection to which the ancients carried the arts. These pieces of earthen ware and brass, destined for the most common purposes, and executed, without doubt, by ordinary workmen, equal the most esteemed works of our modern artists in workmanship, and surpass them infinitely in invention. The explanations, as in the former volumes, are too ample. A ninth volume is expected, which is to contain interesting details concerning the temple of Isis at Pompeia, and the collection of antiquities found in the ruins.

L' *Accademia degli Amori*, &c. The Academy of the Loves, in Verse and Prose. Parma, 1792, 8vo. The verses are easy and agreeable.

Saggio sopra il Commercio generale delle Nazioni d'Europa, &c. An Essay on the general Commerce of European Nations, and on that of Sicily in particular. Venice, 1792, 8vo. This work gives a cursory view of the history of commerce, a subject familiar to the English reader. That of Sicily is minutely detailed.

At Naples has appeared, in English and French, a new publication from the cabinet of Sir William Hamilton, containing, in one volume folio, engravings of ancient vases, mostly Grecian, found in tombs in the Two Sicilies, but particularly in the neighbourhood of Naples, during excursions made in the years 1789 and 1790. The plates, presenting only outlines, are more proper for the artist than for the connoisseur. It seems now allowed that the vases, denominated Etruscan, are really Grecian. M. Paaro, the landscape painter, has deposited in the British Museum fragments of terra cotta, from Athens, which perfectly resemble the work of the Etruscan vases. The present publication contains many curious and interesting observations, and we shall find an opportunity of enlarging more upon it. At present we shall only add, that the opinion long entertained, that the celebrated ancient vases belong to Etruria, is here completely overturned; and our ingenious imitator, Mr. Wedgwood, may change the name of his manufactory to Grecia, whenever he pleases.

Istruzioni per coltivar Utilmente le Api, &c. Instructions for the useful Management of Bees, and the Method of deriving the greatest Advantages from them; a Work approved by the Academy of Agriculture at Vicenza, &c. Vicenza, 1793, 8vo. with plates. This work presents a collection of the best opinions on this subject, ancient and modern.

SPAIN.

SPAIN.

Memorias œconomicas sobre los Frutos, Fabricas, y Minas de Espanna, &c. Oeconomical Memoirs on the Productions, Manufactures, and Mines of Spain; with the Ordinances relative to these Subjects; collected by Don Eugeno Harruga. Madrid, 1792, 4to. vols. I. to XVII. This collection, *unique* in its kind, will, without doubt, form a vast number of volumes; for in these seventeen only a small part of the kingdom is contained, namely, the governments of Madrid, Toledo, Guadalaxara, Mancha, Segovia, and a few others. But it must be confessed that, when the work is finished, it will present a more complete account of Spain than we have of any other country. For the author does not confine himself to the objects specified in the title; he enters into extensive details concerning topography, the nature of the soil, the population, the supply and price of provisions, with their consummation and surplus, the industry and the commerce of each province. He adds a particular description, and even a history, of all the great establishments, such as the fine societies (*gremias*) of Madrid, the woollen manufactory at Guadalaxara, that of quicksilver at Almada, &c. and remarks the variations of national industry at different epochs. He explains himself with the utmost freedom on the effect of some ordinances; and it is perceived that in Spain, as elsewhere, the oeconomical laws have oftener favoured the interests of individuals who have solicited them, than the general good. In Madrid, for example, there is but one brewery, and the establishment of more is prohibited. In the little town of St. Ander there are three, which make a superior beer, but it is not permitted to furnish the capital. The vineyards in the environs of Madrid do not produce so much as they would, if the imposts were not so excessive: altogether they amount to 250 per cent. on the price of all the consumption which that city makes of the wines which they produce.

The impression of all the books of devotion belongs, by privilege, to the monks of the Escorial, who caused print them in foreign countries, in a sufficient quantity to furnish the whole kingdom. The printers have never been able to obtain the revocation of this privilege; all they have done is to oblige these monks to employ the Spanish presses.

The manufacture of porcelain at Buenretiro has cost more than 120 millions of reals; and since 1763 it has never made any thing fit for sale. The glass manufactory at St. Ildefonso also labours with loss, though it produces very fine glasses; the largest are 145 inches by 85. The cloth manu-

factory at Guadalaxara, established by the famous Riporda, in 1718, occupies at present more than 20,000 workmen; but it is far from sufficient to furnish the kingdom, and to employ all the wool: there is a great consumption of English cloths, while much wool is exported.

P O R T U G A L.

Documentos Arabicos para a Historia Portugueza, &c. Arabian Documents of Portuguese History, from Originals in the Royal Archives, with a Portuguese Translation, by Fr. J. de Soufa. Lisbon, 1792, 4to. These are only letters of some princes of Asia and Africa, who corresponded with Portugal on account of its colonies. They amount to fifty-eight; the first dated in 1503, the last in 1528: and illustrate the Portuguese commerce, at the time of its greatest prosperity.

G E R M A N Y.

Mahlerische Reise in die Italienische Sweitz. A picturesque Journey through Italian Switzerland, with Plates, by J. H. Meyer. Zurich, 1793, oblong 4to. This work appears in numbers. The prints are by the author, and Hefs, and are well executed. Each number contains twelve: and the descriptions are interesting, as blending history with topography.

Bengt Bergius uber die Leckereyan. Halle, 1793, 8vo. This is a translation, into German, of the valuable work of Bergius, a Swedish writer, on the culinary vegetables.

Collectio Epistolarum quas ad Viros illustres et clarissimos, scripsit Carolus a Linne, &c. Hamburg, 1792, 8vo. This collection is far from complete: the most numerous letters are those to Haller, already published, and eight to Thunberg, on the Japanese plants.

Verouch der Geschichte von Krain, &c. An Essay on the History of Carniola, and the other Countries of the southern Slavons, subject to the Austrian dominion; by Ant. Liuhart. Laibach, 1791, two vols. 8vo. This work, from the obscurity of the place of publication, has come slowly into notice. The author's researches add little to our knowledge of the Slavonic nations; and he has fallen into a gross error, in supposing the Vandals and Venedi to be the same people, while the former were Germans, or of Gothic race; the latter Slavons, who came into the territory of the Vandals in the fifth century, when the latter nation had abandoned their possessions to seize on portions of the Roman empire. In other respects the ancient and modern history and geography of

of Carniola are well detailed; and each volume is accompanied with a map, shewing the ancient and modern state of that country.

Samlung far die Forst Geographia, &c. An Essay on the Culture of Forest Trees in different Countries, by A. Niemann, Professor at Kiel. Altona, 1792, 8vo. part I. The subject is curious, and treated with ability. The author shews the progress of vegetation, from the mosses which grow on the greatest heights, and alike bear extreme heat and extreme cold, to the Alpine plants, as the mezerean, with rosemary leaves, found by Saufure on Mount Blanc, at a height of 1780 French toises, which are followed by the rhododendron and others, and those by pines. This first part proceeds to give an account of the chief indigenous trees of Spain, and of Italy.

Acta Academiæ Elect. Mog. quæ Erfurti est, &c. Memoirs of the Academy at Erfurt, for the Years 1790 and 1791. Erfurt, 1792, 4to. This volume contains some curious papers, such as the critical Remarks of Mr. Herel on Velleius Paterculus, Memoirs on the best Education of Country Surgeons, on an Oeconomical Plan of Building in the Country, on the History of Architecture, &c. &c.

Kanradin von Schaben, &c. Conrad of Suabia. Leipzig, 1792, 8vo. This is an historical Romance, founded on the manners of the thirteenth century, and has met with considerable success.

Beschreibung, &c. A Description of the City of Salzburg, by M. Hubner. Salzburg, 1793, two vols. 8vo. with Plates. After Berlin there is no city in Germany of which so complete and minute a description has been given. The topographical part, attended with two maps, comprehends also the environs of Salzburg. The historical researches ascend to the most remote evidence of its existence: and the materials are collected with choice as well as labour.

Apollonii Dyscoli Alexandrini grammatici Historiæ commentitiæ Liber, &c. A Teuchero. Lipsia, 1792, 8vo. This little work, containing only the most absurd tales of antiquity, was published by Xylander, at Basil, 1568, and reprinted by Meursius in 1620. Both editions being rare, we are obliged to Mr. Teucher for this new publication.

Reize Durch, &c. A Journey into some of the western and southern Provinces of England, by Wenderborn. Hamburg, 1793, 8vo. This new work of Wenderborn's will not detract from his former reputation. We have to add, that Mr. Van Schuz has published, at Hamburg, his *Briefe uber London*, or Letters on London; being a supplement to Mr. Archeubulz's work, intituled, *England and Italy*.

HOLLAND.

Staat der Financie, &c. State of the Finances of the United Netherlands, according to the Report of the Commissioners, with the original Papers. Amst. 1791, 1792, four vols. In 1717 the debt of the provinces amounted to 58,300,697 florins: in 1786 this enormous debt was reduced to about 20,000,000 of florins. The commissaries propose to sell the national domains, and the tythes, in order to pay off the remainder.

Memorien, &c. Memoirs for the History of the last War with England, by M. Rendop, Baron of Marquette, Amst. 1792, 8vo. vols. I. and II. The last war between England and Holland was destructive to the latter country: it interrupted her commerce, conducted to a disadvantageous peace, and was the chief cause of the internal commotions which have produced, and continue to produce, such ruinous effects. Our author here publishes some curious materials. According to him the war proceeded on a mere misapprehension. The English did not deny that the Dutch had a title to carry war-like stores and provisions to the powers at war with England; but desired that the Dutch would abandon that right, on condition that England did not insist on the succours stipulated by the treaty of 1678. The intrigues of the Russian cabinet prevailed against the proposition of England; and the consequence was, an unexpected war, which would have ruined the republic, if France had not preserved her.

S W E D E N.

Æremienne, &c. Elegy on Steno Sture the Younger, Administrator of Sweden, by A. G. Silfverstolpe. Stockholm, 1792, 8vo. The history of this hero is well known even to the readers of Vertot; our author has, in this academical exercise, displayed some eloquence.

P R U S S I A.

Spartacus, Roman Historique, par A. G. Meisner. Berlin, 1793, 8vo. This work, founded on known history, is ably written.

In the *Gazette Litteraire de Berlin* have appeared three letters, written during a journey to Goettingen, Cassel, &c. which contains some interesting particulars concerning the literary state of these places. Goettingen contains only 8000 inhabitants, yet affords many opportunities of knowledge not to be found in great cities. The professors are much at their ease. Planck in cannon law, Boehmer in the law of nations, Runde

Runde in feudal law, Martens and Putter in the German jurisprudence, Kæstener in mathematics, Gatterer in history, Heifne in belles-lettres, are all professors of great respect. The library, in 1791, amounted to 200,000 volumes; and the catalogue, by M. Reufs, is well arranged. Hanover appears, from these letters, to be the happiest electorate in Germany. The university at Cassel is now abandoned; but that of Marburg preserves some reputation.

R U S S I A.

Newe Nardische Heyträge, &c. New Memoirs for the Knowledge of the North, by Pallas. Petersburg, Logan, 1793, 8vo. with plates. This volume is the fifth of the memoirs of the celebrated Pallas, though it is also intituled the first of the New Memoirs. The chief papers are a relation of a Russian Voyage, in 1765, to discover a North-east Passage; the writer believes that in time the passage between Greenland and Spitzbergen will be shut up by the ice: Description of a Chinese Spunge of five colours: Oriental Manner of dying Cotton red: Mythology of Ancient Courland: Voyage from Kamschatka to America: unknown Inscription found in Siberia, &c. The volume is very curious, and worthy of the great reputation of Dr. Pallas. It is to be followed by others; and we hope the learned editor will long continue to add to our stock of useful knowledge.

ENGLISH LITERATURE.

The South Downs. A Poem. 8vo. 2s. Symonds. 1793.

IT has been observed, with what truth we shall not affirm that a very *bad* pun will produce the same effect as a very *good* one, namely, to excite laughter. Be this as it may, certain it is, that in the perusal of the present performance, our laugh has been repeatedly awakened; not by the sterling wit or genuine humour of the piece, but by its singular absurdity. Among the variety of strange and *bizarre* productions which we ill-fated critics are condemned to notice and to peruse, we hardly remember to have met with any *single* performance in prose or in rhyme, where so many violations of good composition are so thickly scattered as we find in almost every page of this most ridiculous poem. No! we may safely say, that for defectiveness of design — want of arrangement — confusion of metaphor — perversion of grammar and ordinary language, and above all, an impenetrable obscurity, the *South Downs* may challenge east, west, south, or north

north to produce its equal. We have with painful and irregular steps attempted to follow this writer through his favourite scenes; and to explain, ascertain, and admire, from every commanding height, swell, or hillock, the numberless beauties and advantages with which we are told they abound. But, alas! a thick and cruel fog defeated all our labours, and after walking *four thousand one hundred and eighty yards* in darkness and astonishment, we were obliged to return, as completely ignorant of every thing relative to the South Downs as at our first starting. — To drop metaphor, of which, indeed, we have already had a sufficient quantity in the work before us, after a perusal of twelve hundred and fifty-four heroic lines, we know no more of the author's drift, sentiments, or description, than if we had treated his *southern* offspring like an *eastern* one — that is, begun at the end and read backwards: a method which, considering the retrograde style of the writer, perhaps, we ought to have adopted.

To vindicate ourselves from every suspicion of severe and ill-founded censure, we shall, for the benefit of young critics, and as a warning to succeeding manufacturers of rhyme, present them with a few specimens of what we shall call the *sublime of obscurity, and confusion* in writing.

After professing himself a *Leveller*, and a declared enemy to commercial avarice, monopoly, and taxation; the author thus proceeds to brandish his deadly weapon at 'stars, coronets, right honourables, and, what he calls, *monied aristocracy, that derives its strength from the violated laws of nature.*'

' I quarrel not with title's tawdry note,
Mere tinsel on humanity's surcoat,
The barb'rous tissue of despotic times,
Designed to garnish and compensate crimes,
Which modern worth too often deigns to wear,
Like Belisarius in his beggar's gear.
That gorgeous mantle fades in reason's eye:
We soon shall see its tarnish'd gaudes thrown by.
Like popish *chafuble*, they're doom'd to sink
Whene'er the multitude begin to think.'

Here, the *tawdry note* of title, which we are yet to learn, is first whistled into *tinsel*, and placed upon the great coat of humanity; it is then manufactured into *tissue*; converted into a *garnish* to gratify the maw of criminality, which garnish is *worne* by *modern worth*, the same as Belisarius wore the garb of a beggar. It is once more manufactured into a *gorgeous mantle*, which, at a magical touch, *fades* in the eye of reason; and, lastly, its *tarnish'd gaudes* are thrown aside, the same as the upper vestment worn by the priest at the celebration

tion of mafs, which tarnished gaudes, or mantle, we know not which, are doomed to *fin*k the moment that *thought* begins to influence the minds of the *multitude*.—If any of our readers can comprehend this precious allegory; or can reconcile the links by which it is connected, to any of the known, established rules of composition, it is more than we can do.—But we shall turn from these dark crooked paths of criticism into the open cheering plain of *true* English rustic wit and proverbial humour,

Now yields the gurgling keg a racy draught,
By thirsty labour how delicious quaff'd!
And while the can revives their rustic wit,
With homely point each jest is sure to hit.

“ Ned like a beggar chews : Tom bolts his prog :

“ And snuffling Sam feeds like a hungry hog.”

“ What ? Sal has qualms.” “ Yes : Deb. the gypsey,
saw

“ Sal meet a river-cutter in the Shaw.”

“ And if so be she did, what's that to Tom ?

“ Meddlers mayhap had better look at home.”

“ Well ; what's at home ?” “ The maker of thy horns.

“ Poor man ! they shoot like mother Attree's corns.”

“ Now kicks her bantling as the midwife's nam'd.”

“ When sings the cuckoo, cuckolds be a sham'd.”

“ Sal's brat will have her spirit, I suppose.”

“ And Tom's will have”—“ What, vixen ?” “ Pap's
own nose.”

“ Surely the wench has got a precious tongue.”

“ Aye, and the dropfy, if she ben't with young.”

“ Sam brays again. How like old Balaam's *ass* !”

“ How oft has *ibine*—She whimpers : let it pass.”

Compared with these, what are Shakspeare's fools and clowns,
or the wisdom of Sancho Panza's laws and proverbs'—
Trash !

The following description will serve at once for eel-catching,
and a city feast.

“ While rous'd, the smaller eels, by false alarm
Of splashing feet, encounter real harm,
The worm, slow writhing on the *bobber's* thread,
Allures the larger from their oozy bed.
Eager they bite : within the guileful bait
Their teeth, entangled, prove the hooks of fate.
Each tug the fisher feels, and straight to land,
Suspended, hauls them with a rapid hand.

So feeds the epicure at city feast,
 Till man intemp'rate sinks a bloated beast :
 The glutton tugs amain ; pants hard for breath,
 And, caught by liqu'rish tooth, is *bobb'd* by death.'

Epicures and gluttons as our city aldermen are, we never knew before that they were *hooked* and *bobbed* in this manner. But let it be a warning.

Had we been more at leisure, perhaps, we should have been tempted to have given a few more examples of this writer's mode of composition, for the gratification as well as the instruction of our poetical readers. Circumstanced as we are, we must, however reluctantly, quit the repast, and close this article with the following advice, which, if we rightly comprehend the author's meaning, he seems to request in the conclusion of a short advertisement prefixed to this poem. And, first, we would recommend it to him, previously to his engaging again in verse, seriously to consider in his own mind, whether dame Nature has really given him the gifts of a poet; without which, he may rest assured, that with every other qualification, he will unquestionably expose himself to ridicule as often as he attempts subjects in rhyme. Secondly, if he is determined, at all events, to soar into the regions of Parnassus, we would advise him, as the most likely means of success, at least of *safety*, to be less solicitous about *metaphor* and simile, and more about *Nature*; to banish *quaint* epithet and affected phraseology for the admission of *simplicity* of sentiment and diction; ingredients as essential to *every* species of good writing as they are favourable to the tender, the passionate, and the sublime in poetry. Lastly, we will just take the liberty to observe, that as the first and principal intention of *all* writing is INSTRUCTION, so ought the first and invariable attention of every author to be directed to *PERSPICUITY*. That without this, all the charms and beauties of composition vanish and are lost; and that without a due regard to method or arrangement in the different *parts* of a work, neither perspicuity nor the combined beauties of a *whole* can be produced. These observations, we can assure the author of the South Downs, are not given with a supercilious sneer, but with sincerity. As he may be a very good and a very sensible man, although no son of Apollo, we have, previous to his ascending the chariot of the sun, ventured to hint a caution; and, perhaps, with a little more experience and reflection shew him his danger more plainly, he will thank us for our seeming asperity.

A R E V I E W
O F
P U B L I C A F F A I R S,
From the Beginning of
M A Y T O A U G U S T, 1793.

F R A N C E.

WHEN we last reviewed the political affairs of this distracted country, we saw the incendiary *Marat* committed to prison, and his party, the *Mountain*, in the minority of the national convention; and we left general Dampierre regulating and leading to action the army which the resentment or the treachery of Dumourier had disorganized. In a well-fought action, on the eighth of May, near St. Amand, between the combined armies and the French, Dampierre was mortally wounded, and soon after died. His laurels had not arrived at a sufficient maturity to be assailed by the blasts of envy or of faction, but accompanied him in their full bloom to his grave. The effusion of human blood was the principal event of this battle; the Austrians are said to have lost two thousand men, the French nearly the same number, but the loss of the English is yet unknown,

General Custine, commander of the armies of the Rhine and the Moselle, informed the convention about this time, that he had been grossly insulted by three of their commissioners, and complained that he was accused respecting a letter which he wrote to the duke of Brunswick. In what manner the general was satisfied, we are not informed; but
that

that he was, is evident from his acceptance of the command of the armies of the North, soon after their retreat from the camp of Famars. The sentiment however which he appears to have excited on this occasion proved afterwards fatal to this able and ill treated general.

The national convention, on the tenth of May, took possession of their new hall of assembly in the palace of the Thuilleries, and on that day they laid the first stone of the new edifice of the constitution: the business of this day may perhaps in some measure explain to the thinking world, the temper and sentiments of France with respect to government. On the one hand it was proposed that a *social compact* should be decreed before the constitution. On the contrary, it was determined that a nation which had proclaimed the *rights of man*, could have no other social compact than a constitution: the leaders of the Jacobin party contended, that modern legislators ought to act precisely contrary to former precedent; hitherto the art of government had been the art of pillaging and of subjecting the many for the benefit of the few; and legislation has been the art of reducing these crimes into a system. They next observed, that politicians, hitherto less anxious to defend liberty than to modify tyranny, have thought but of two means to limit the power of the magistrate—one has been the equilibrium of power, the other the Tribunitian authority. The equilibrium of power was termed a chimera; it was argued that we must suppose the absolute nullity and suspension of government, if the rival powers did not necessarily coalesce against the people; and that the influence of gold and the influence of the crown utterly destroyed this boasted balance. Such were the positions with which the republicans of France prefaced the new fabric of their constitution, which we shall presently have occasion to review; but it is necessary previously to advert to the revolution, as it is termed, of the thirty-first of May, when the Gironde, or moderate party, was precipitated from power by the enraged faction of Marat. When the news of this change first reached this country, it was accompanied with a rumour that dreadful massacres had taken place in Paris; but, however adverse we may be to the French proceedings, every good man will rejoice that there was not one human victim offered up to the demon of discord upon this occasion.

The

The sitting of the convention on the thirty-first of May, opened at half past six in the morning, and did not close till ten at night; and notwithstanding a most persuasive discourse from Verginaux, followed by several conciliatory motions from Barrere, and in spite of the firmness shewn by several other members, Roberspierre, Marat, and the deputies of the commune, were finally victorious. A petition was received from the constituted authorities in Paris, demanding "that the members of the commission of *twelve*, with others, to the number of twenty-two who had been formerly marked out, (among whom were Isnard, Gaudet, Brissot, Verginaux, Genfonne, Barbaroux, the minister Le Brun, and the ex-minister Roland) should be decreed in a state of accusation as enemies to their country." This petition was ordered to be printed. Lanjuinais, and several others, proclaimed that their deliberations were not free. The tribunes as often menaced those who opposed themselves to what was called the wish of the city of Paris.

A majority of the convention had ordered the committee of twelve to be re-established. The deputies of Paris, in a lofty tone, demanded, that it should be again dissolved. They told the convention, that the sections of Paris had established, on the night preceding, a provisional revolutionary *commune*. A majority of the convention was disposed not to recognize the municipality thus established; but they at length were compelled not only to the recognition, but also to permit that the assembly, thus nominated, should grant forty *sous* a day to each of the *sans culottes* of Paris who should execute its orders, until the general tranquillity should be restored. After this a general federation was decreed for the tenth of August. On the following day (first of June) the Fauxbourgs of St. Antoine, and St. Marceau, with all the adherents of Marat and Roberspierre, were again in motion. The drums beat to arms in every quarter; no person knew what was transacting, but every man was at his post. At nine o'clock in the evening it was known, that another deputation from the municipality was about to repair to the convention, who had adjourned their sittings at five o'clock, to eight in the evening. M. Le Brun, with M. and Madame Roland, were put under arrest. Claviere, the late minister of the finances, concealed himself, but wrote to demand that he might be placed under the protection of the law.

On the second of June, the convention decreed the arrest of all the members of the committee of twelve, Fonfrede and St. Martin excepted. On the preceding evening all the alarm bells were rung. When the respective departments heard of the impeachment of their representatives, a considerable ferment took place, and several bodies of men threatened to march to Paris, to restore liberty to the insulted convention; but the unexpected moderation of the predominant party, and the vigour of their measures to repel the common enemy, seem in most instances to have appeased the resentment of the provinces.

The members of the convention, ordered under an arrest, issued an address to the French people, in which they develop the causes of the late commotion in the assembly and in Paris; and their account is as follows: A law had been enacted which prescribed the formation of committees in the different sections of Paris, destined to watch over foreigners and suspicious people. This law was eluded. Instead of those committees, others were formed in the most illegal manner. These committees created a central committee, composed of one member from the committee of each section. This central committee, after some private deliberation, suspended the constituted authorities, and assumed the title of Revolutionary Council of the department of Paris, and also invested itself with a dictatorial power. An extraordinary committee had been formed in the bosom of the convention, to denounce the illegal and arbitrary acts of the constituted authorities, and to cause all persons to be arrested who should be denounced as chiefs of conspiracies. On the twenty-seventh of May, those revolutionary committees, with an armed force, demanded the suppression of the committee formed by the convention. This request was decreed, but on the next day it was deferred till the committee should have made their report. The revolutionary council of Paris refused to attend the report. On the the thirtieth of May, they intimated to the convention their order to suppress the extraordinary commission. Amidst armed petitioners, surrounded by cannon, under continual insults from the galleries, some members decreed the suppression of the commission. On the famous thirty-first of May, the generale was again beaten, the toclin sounded, and the alarm

alarm-gun fired. At these signals, all the citizens flew to arms, and were ordered to assemble round the convention. Some deputations demanded a decree of accusation against thirty-five members of the convention. The assembly referred this to the committee of public safety, enjoining them to deliver in their report within three days. On the first of June, at three in the afternoon, the revolutionary council of Paris marched at the head of an armed force to invest the national hall. At night they appeared at the bar, and demanded a decree of accusation against the denounced members. The convention passed to the order of the day, and ordered the petitioners to exhibit the proofs of the crimes imputed to the accused members. On the second of June, the revolutionary council demanded, for the last time, the decree of accusation against the obnoxious deputies. The assembly passed again to the order of the day. The petitioners now gave a signal to the spectators to leave the hall and rush to arms. About noon, the generale was beaten, the tocsin sounded; more than a hundred cannons surrounded the national hall, and grates were formed to heat red hot balls; cannon were pointed towards all the avenues; the gates were shut, and the sentries ordered to stop all the members of the convention. Many of the deputies were insulted by the satellites of Marat. The battalions, which several days before should have marched against the royalists, suddenly arrived, and seized on the inner posts of the hall. Assignats and wine were distributed among them. In short, the representatives were imprisoned in their own hall. To avert the rage of the people, it was ordered that the committee of public safety should make their report. Barrere mounted the tribune, and proposed, that the denounced members, against whom no proof of the imputed crime has been produced, should be invited to suspend themselves from their functions. Some of them submitted to this measure. At length an end was put to the sitting, the president walked out of the hall at the head of the convention, and ordered the sentries to withdraw.

The convention reached the middle of the court without meeting any resistance; but being arrived there, the commander of the armed force ordered them to return. The president told him, the convention was not to be dictated to; that it held its authority independent of any other

power than the French people, and that they alone had a right to command it. The commander, Henriot, drew his sword, ranged his cavalry in order of battle, and ordered the cannoneers to point their cannon. His soldiers were ready to fire—The president turned back, the members followed him, and attempted every outlet in order to escape, but every avenue was closed or defended by cannon. At length the assembly, unable to retire, resumed their sitting; and some members decreed, that the obnoxious deputies should be put under arrest at their own houses. On the proposal of Marat, Couthon demanded that Valazé and Louvet should be added to that number: some members gave their consent, for the greater part of them did not take any share in those humiliating deliberations. After the decree was signed, a deputation made its appearance, to testify its approbation of the decree, and offered an equal number of citizens as hostages for the arrested members.

After these commotions had subsided, the first step of the new administration was to frame a constitution. The national convention, on the twenty-third of June, issued a declaration of the rights of man, as a preface to their new form of government, which is contained in thirty-five articles. It states that the end of society is the general happiness: the rights of man are, *equal* liberty, safety, and the protection of property—that a free people know no other motive of preference in their election to offices than virtue and talents—that the *law* is the protection of liberty, and *justice* its rule—that all persons have a right to assemble peaceably for public worship, without any prohibition from particular sects.—The law does not acknowledge servitude; the contract between master and servant is only an engagement of attention and gratitude, between the man who labours and the man who employs him. Every one has a right to dispose of his property, revenues, labour, and industry, according to his pleasure. Society is obliged to provide for the subsistence of the unfortunate, either by procuring them work, or maintaining those who are unable to labour. The concluding article enacts, that when the government violates the rights of the people, insurrection becomes the duty of the people. A few days after the publication of this declaration, the assembly announced the completion of the new constitution of France, which had been discussed article by article, and passed as the constitutional act within the space of a fortnight, and now waits the sanction

tion of the different departments. It is introduced by the following sentence—"the French republic honours loyalty, courage, age, filial piety, and misfortune. It puts the deposit of its constitution under the guard of all the virtues." It consists of one hundred and twenty-four articles, arranged under general heads.

NEW CONSTITUTION OF FRANCE.

1. *How the rights of a citizen are acquired, &c.* The natives acquire them by birth, foreigners by marrying a French woman, by being domiciliated in France for one year, by maintaining an aged person, or adopting a child.

2. *The sovereignty of the people.*

3. *Of the primary assemblies,* which are composed of two hundred citizens at the least, and six hundred at the most, of those who have been inhabitants for six months in each canton. The elections are made by ballot or open vote at the option of each voter. The suffrages upon laws are given by *yes* or *no*.

4. *Of the national representation.* The population is the sole basis of the national representation. There is one deputy for every forty thousand individuals. Each reunion of primary assemblies resulting from a population of from thirty-nine thousand to forty-one thousand souls, nominates directly one deputy. The French nation assemble every year on the first of May, for the election. The primary assemblies are formed upon extraordinary occasions, on the demand of a fifth of the citizens who have a right to vote in them; but the extraordinary assemblies only deliberate when more than the half of the citizens are present.

5. *Of electoral assemblies.* The citizens united in primary assemblies name one elector for every two-hundred citizens, and in proportion.

6. *Of the legislative body.* Its session is for a year, and its first meeting the first of July. Its members cannot be tried for the opinions they have delivered in the national assembly.

7. *The functions of the legislative body.* They propose laws and pass decrees, superintend public instruction, the national domain, and make the declarations of war; provide for the defence of the territory, and ratify treaties.

8. *Of the formation of the law.* The plan of a law is preceded by a report; and the discussion of it cannot take place till fifteen days after the report is made. The plan is printed and sent to all the communes of the republic,

under this title, "Law proposed." Forty days after, the law proposed is sent to the departments; if in more than half of the departments the tenth of the primary assemblies of each have not objected to it, the plan is accepted, and becomes a law.

9. *Of the executive council.* This council is composed of twenty-four members, for which the electoral assembly of each department nominates one candidate. The legislative body choose the members of the council from the general list. One half of it is renewed by each legislature, in the last month of the session. It nominates, not of its own body, the agents in chief of the general administration of the republic. The legislative body determines the number and the functions of these agents.

10. *Of civil justice.* There are justices of the peace elected by the citizens, in circuits determined by the law. They conciliate and judge *without expence*—Their number and their competence are determinable by the legislature. The justices of the peace are elected every year.

11. *Of criminal justice.* In criminal cases no individual can be tried, but on an examination received by a jury, or decreed by the legislative body. The fact and the intention are declared by a jury of judgment. The punishment is applied by a criminal tribunal. The criminal judges are elected yearly by the electoral assemblies.

12. *Of the forces of the republic.* The general force is composed of the whole people. All the French are soldiers; they are all exercised in the use of arms. No armed body can deliberate. The public force, employed against enemies from without, acts under the orders of the executive council.

13. *Of national conventions.* If in a majority of the departments, the tenth of the primary assemblies of each, regularly formed, demand the revision of the constitutional act, the legislative body is bound to convoke all the primary assemblies of the republic, to know if there be ground for a national convention. The national convention is formed in the same manner as the legislatures, and unites in itself their power.

14. *Of the correspondence of the French republic with foreign nations.* The French people is the friend and natural ally of every free people. *It does not interfere in the government of other nations.* It does not suffer other nations to interfere in the government of its own. It gives an asylum to foreigners.

foreigners banished from their country for the cause of liberty. It does not make peace with an enemy that occupies its territory.

We may observe with Condorcet, that the first objection which naturally arises to this constitution, is the haste in which it has been formed. To this objection it is answered—that though the certainty that man can never reach entire perfection in any thing that he undertakes, implies that the more care and deliberation he employs, the more likely he is to approach this desired point; yet respecting this new constitution, it must be remembered, that for some time a series of writers, whose works all Europe has admired, had prepared the way for the legislators of France; and that for four years they have more or less directly discussed and laid the bases on which the constitution now submitted to the French was erected. In fine, if the work be good, every moment that was saved will entitle the legislators so much the more to the esteem of the public.

Some objections of more essential importance seem to strike us in an impartial review of this plan of government—Putting out of the question our own predilection for monarchy, the point to be considered is, how far it is likely to answer the end of a republican system. In this view, we do not see upon what grounds the excellent mode of electing the legislature, through the medium of electoral assemblies, was laid aside.—Mr. Burke's objections to this system were not likely to be recommended by *his authority* to the French; and surely no plan could be better devised for the prevention of intrigue, venality, confusion and tumult, than this arrangement. Again, as the legislative body is to be formed on the basis of population, it ought to be specified *how* and *when* that proportion should be ascertained; but we apprehend that a still simpler mode would have been, to proceed in the elections according to districts, taking for a guide, as to the number of representatives, the present population; and allowing future legislatures to alter the number upon certain principles, in proportion as the population varies.

The elections are too frequent; and, however visionary politicians may flatter themselves, nothing is more likely to establish an aristocratical interest in republican government than frequent elections. The choice of representatives then, from the frequent occurrence of the circumstance, becomes a mere matter of course; election dwindle

dles to a kind of *congé d' elire*, and the appointment in time becomes hereditary.

The referring of every law for confirmation to the primary assemblies, is a preposterous measure. The *tacit* consent of the people is given to every law against which they do not expressly protest: for we think the people at large have a right in every government to protest against a law which they find grievous and oppressive.—But to refer it directly to them for discussion is surely an absurdity.

The appointment of the executive power is the great difficulty in all democratical systems. The mode adopted by the French appears too complex—It has however one excellence, viz. that ministers cannot now, as by the first constitution, be removed on the harangue of some demagogue in the assembly; and they will therefore be able to act with more energy in their general departments—On the whole, however, notwithstanding these defects, and though we cannot be supposed to retain any very strong predilection for its authors, we think this constitution greatly preferable to that mass of metaphysical absurdities, which was lately presented to the convention by Condorcet, under the name of a constitution.

Having thus taken a short view of the civil commotions and the political regulations of France, we shall once more revert to its military operations. Though the present combination against this single state exceeds almost any thing recorded in the historic page, its progress has not been in proportion; and this circumstance considered, its success may be termed inconsiderable. Before the tedious sieges of Condé and Valenciennes took place, there were two actions which merit attention; one near Carlberg, the other near the village of Famars.

A letter from general Custine to the convention, dated Weissembourg, May 18, informs them, that he had for some time past formed a design of cutting off from the enemy, a body of seven or eight thousand men whom they had advanced as far as Rheinzabern; but, to succeed, it was necessary to amuse the Prussians in all parts, and to destroy the effect of the cavalry and infantry which they had near Landau; he says, that had he retained the command of this army, he should have deferred that enterprise till the commencement of June, and then the army, better exercised, would have been in a condition to execute it completely; but reflecting that he was about to depart
and

and take upon him the command of the army of the North, he determined to attempt an action to prevent the Prussians from taking advantage of their good position. He, therefore, sent orders to general Houchard to attack in the rear, Limberg and Carlberg, with the army of the Moselle, while Pulli should keep in check, and attack with the rest of the corps des Vasaes, a Prussian corps who had advanced, and while general Suiek, with nine battalions and some cavalry should advance towards Anweiler to molest the Prussians. The same day the garrison of Landau had orders to occupy the banks of the canal of Anweiler, the vineyards and village of Nusderff, with several other posts, and to give the Prussians reason to apprehend that they would be attacked in the rear, in case they should make any movements. He also caused a report to be spread in the Prussian army, that the cavalry of the army of the Moselle had arrived, as well as part of the artillery of Strasbourg. In the mean time general Ferrier, who commanded forty battalions, was ordered only to shew himself to the enemy till he should hear that the engagement had commenced, and to attack them in the wood of Rheinzabern, and the Austrians who were in it beyond the village. Notwithstanding these orders, Custine observes, that he did not see his troops appear till eleven o'clock, at which time general Dietman had commanded a retreat, because the troops being fatigued, could neither procure provisions nor drink. The general himself began to march at eight o'clock in the evening with twenty-six battalions and eight regiments, to the heights near Insheim; but several unavoidable delays prevented him from arriving at that place till five in the morning. The advanced guard, under the command of general Landremont, kept back the enemy, and prevented them from quitting the forest of Germersheim. While general Landremont was thus engaging the Austrian army, and preventing them from advancing, the army of the republic extended itself to the heights of Rulsheim, and proceeded as far as that village. Custine charged two divisions of dragoons with vigour, and they betook themselves to flight after sustaining considerable loss. Among the number of the dead were three officers. The general observed, that had it not been for the infatuation of a battalion, who took the French cavalry for that of the enemy, this day would have been glorious for the troops of the republic; they answered

all attempts to rally them, only by discharges, and it was with great difficulty they could be prevailed upon to resume their ranks. The general was informed that this event was occasioned entirely by the commander, who began the cry of treachery. He was arrested, and it was said he destroyed himself. "This day, which ought to have been so memorable, said Custine, terminated by the taking of one piece of cannon, and a very great number of prisoners."

On the twenty-third of May, after a very severe action, in which the English troops, under the command of the duke of York, suffered very considerably, the French were dislodged from their camp at Famars, which they had fortified with great labour and ability. By this event the garrisons of Condé and Valenciennes were left to their fate; but it is said the loss of the combined army greatly exceeded that of the French.

On the ninth of June, another action took place between the French troops under general Laage and the Austrians, near Arlon; the latter were obliged to retreat to Luxembourg. The French troops on this occasion are said to have behaved with great intrepidity, arranging themselves in order of battle before eight thousand men, posted in a series of entrenchments on an eminence, in the form of steps, marching and receiving their fire in this manner for more than a league, though the eminence was defended by thirty pieces of cannon. After the defeat of the Austrians, the French carried off eight thousand sacks of oats and a large quantity of flour.

When we turn our eyes to the tedious siege of Metz, it is with difficulty we are able to find terms sufficiently military to mark the tardy progress of his Prussian majesty; he certainly destroyed with great formality several sham batteries which the French had erected, and found a grave for many of his soldiers, from the intrepid sorties of the garrison.

About the twentieth of June, he began to form a more serious siege, and our readers have already anticipated the event; as it is well known that the garrison capitulated on the twenty-second of July; rather leaving us cause to wonder at their long and effectual resistance, than at their final surrender. They had long been in want of every necessary, and particularly of medicines; and a considerable
number

number had been forced to subsist entirely on horse-flesh, and the most unwholesome food.

General Custine, on the second of July, informed the convention that the troops of the republic had been attacked on different advanced posts, by double their number; but that his soldiers had repulsed the combined armies with great slaughter. At Pont-au-Marque, the action was very brisk. The enemy marched upon him as if confident of victory; but, after a long and bloody action, they were obliged to abandon their enterprise, and retire with great loss. The loss of the French was small, and the communication between Lille and Douay was then open.

The garrison of Condé, after sustaining a blockade of three months, surrendered on the 10th of July by capitulation, to the prince of Cobourg; and Valenciennes on the 20th of the same month to the duke of York, not without suspicions of treachery in both cases.

On the eighth of August, the French were driven from the strong position which they had taken behind the Scheldt, and which was known by the name of Cæsar's camp: as the French did not make much resistance on this occasion, the loss on both sides was not considerable.

An attack upon Dunkirk, which has been hitherto unsuccessful, is the last circumstance of moment which we have to notice as having occurred on the part of the combined armies. The reason of its failure has been asserted to be the want of naval support, as, by some neglect in the ordnance or naval departments, admiral M'Bride was not able to support his royal highness the duke of York in time to insure success to the undertaking. A series of engagements have since succeeded; in one of which, on the 24th of August, the celebrated Austrian general Dalton was killed.

General Biron repulsed the army of the insurgents from Lucon on the twenty-eighth of June. He sent general Westerman with a detachment of two thousand five hundred men; but though the rebels were eight thousand in number, they dared not attack him, and at length evacuated Parthenay.

Since this event general Biron has been suspended from his command, and (with that justice and gratitude which characterises the proceedings of the convention) imprisoned, and will probably be delivered over to the bloody revolutionary tribunal. The insurgents in La Vendee have
however

however been defeated in several actions, and if we may credit the last accounts, are almost entirely dispersed.

Every moment seems at present, pregnant with events. Marat, the reputed author of massacres, has himself fallen by the hand of an enthusiastic female of the name of Charlotte Cordé, from Caen in Normandy.

The remains of this notorious anarchist were interred with great funeral pomp, attended by a part of the national convention and a vast multitude of citizens; as he is gone to be tried before an omnipotent tribunal, we must let his guilt pass with him to the silence of the grave. That Marat was an enthusiast, is beyond dispute; and whether he was any other than a pernicious madman, appears a matter of doubt; he must at least have been impelled by some other motive than avarice, since he is said to have died poor. This indeed affords no apology for the atrocities which he has provoked or committed; and we believe there are few who will lament his death, except those who instigated, or at least profited by his crimes.

The death of this execrable incendiary, however, does not appear to have restored the convention and the mob of Paris to reason and humanity. The unfortunate queen has been forcibly separated from her family, conveyed from the temple to one of the prisons destined for common malefactors; and has already undergone one examination before that black tribunal whose decrees are but seldom tempered with mercy. The political insanity of the French will probably sacrifice a valuable hostage to a puerile resentment; and the blood of this unfortunate female will, like that of the fabled monsters of antiquity, produce an accession of foes to this desperate and deluded nation.

If any act of frenzy can exceed their ill treatment of the queen (who, though her sufferings may have expiated her crimes, certainly cannot be considered as the friend of France), it is the shocking ingratitude and cruelty lately exercised to one of the most meritorious generals that ever the French republic could boast. The unfortunate Custine, after being committed a prisoner to the abbey, was accused before the revolutionary tribunal of having maintained an improper correspondence with the Prussians while he commanded on the Rhine, and of having neglected various opportunities of throwing reinforcements into Valenciennes. The French have no distinct notions of the administration

nistration of justice; they have no idea of the nature of evidence—The fatal catastrophe is well known.

The disaffection of the southern provinces of France has been productive of some serious consequences to the new republic. It is well known that the deputies and people of these provinces were among the foremost in the iniquitous business of dethroning their king on the execrable 10th of August 1792. It is therefore something extraordinary that the same men should be among the first to rebel against the authority of the convention. The formidable union which took place under the name of *federate republicanism*, between the cities of Marseilles, Lyons and Toulon, in the course of the months of June and July, seemed to threaten almost the dissolution of the present authorities. A formidable army has however been dispatched against Lyons, and that city is at present closely besieged. The Marseillois opened their gates on the approach of the republican army and submitted; but the people of Toulon entered into a negociation with the English admiral, lord Hood, and he has taken possession both of the town and of the shipping, in the name of Louis XVII. and under the express and positive stipulation that he is to assist in restoring the constitution of 1789. What will ultimately be the result of this extraordinary transaction, it is almost impossible to conjecture.

G R E A T B R I T A I N .

Without entering into the causes of the rupture with France, or without the smallest intention to favour or apologize for the ruling faction there, to whom we cannot possibly be accused of partiality, still we apprehend that every good and considerate mind will unite with us in the wish that some mode could be found of adjusting the points in dispute. That “grim-visaged war would smooth his wrinkled front,” and that legions who are at this moment employed in desolation and slaughter, were sent back to the useful occupations of the plough, the loom, and the anvil.

Mr. Fox, on the eighteenth of May, moved in the house of commons, “that an address might be presented to his majesty on the present awful and momentous crisis, especially as a long and eventful period might elapse before his majesty could again have an opportunity of collecting the

the real sentiments and wishes of his people through their representatives—That the commons declare, that they concurred in the measures necessary to carry on the present war, for the objects of defence and security, and for those objects only—That though they have the greatest reliance on his word and promise, solemnly pledged to this country and to Europe, not to interfere in the internal affairs of France, nor to enter into the views and projects of other powers, who in the present war may be actuated by tyrannical and ambitious motives; yet they feel it their duty to call his majesty's serious attention to *some circumstances* which have occurred since the commencement of the present unfortunate war." The motion concluded with stating, "that the danger apprehended from the former conquests and aggrandizements of the French nation, appeared to be no longer a subject of just uneasiness and alarm." In support of this motion it was urged, that whatever sentiments of indignation the people of this country might feel with regard to some of the proceedings on the part of France, yet it was not in the contemplation of the people, at the beginning of the war, to insist on giving to France an absolute government, or indeed to insist on giving it any form of government whatever, or to interfere with any which might be proposed by the people of that country themselves.

The disadvantages of the war to this country were particularly insisted upon. The overthrow of our commerce, the total stagnation of our manufactures, were depicted, on the most decisive evidence. The ministry were reminded of their own strong expressions, in the debate concerning the late negotiation with Russia, in which they had insisted, "that peace was essential to this country, and that its prosperity, and even safety, could only be established on the basis of a pacific system." It was alleged that this war was the most expensive that Great Britain ever was engaged in, "for we had undertaken to subsidize all Europe;" and that though the minister, with his usual duplicity, did not lay on any new taxes in this session, lest his project might meet with interruption from the discontents of the people, yet the weight of them, which must be laid on in the course of the ensuing winter, would both distress and irritate the nation.

It was observed, that "no advantage whatever could ultimately redound to this country, even from the most brilliant

liant success."—Nothing was to be reaped from this conflict but barren laurels; and we might make conquests, but not for ourselves. The increasing power of Austria and Russia was represented as more formidable to Britain than that of France could possibly be. In fine, the opinion of the wisest statesmen of this country, of Walpole and of Chatham, was quoted against continental wars, and continental connexions.

The motion was opposed by Mr. Pitt and his colleagues, who admitted that there had been a disavowal of any intention in administration to interfere, for the purpose of establishing, in France, any particular form of government, whether monarchical, democratic, or despotic; but they conceived it to have been the avowed purpose of the war, to endeavour to bring about the establishment of such a government, in that country, as they might with safety treat with; and that they ought to prosecute the war till they could make peace for England with safety. They contended that they could see no rule or example, either in practice or in reason, by which a ministry could be called upon, at the beginning of a war, to state definitely what are its precise objects, or what the precise situation in which it ought to be desisted from; to do so, would be impossible, because much must depend in point of prudence and propriety, upon contingencies, during the continuance of the war.

Mr. Pitt particularly deplored the war, as injurious to the country in every view, and professed his desire for peace; but could not see with what party in France it was possible to treat at present—Some of the commercial distresses might result from the war; but it was insinuated that these effects were much exaggerated by the opposition. The arguments of Mr. Burke seemed to take a different course from those of either party, and the grand obstacle to treating appeared with him to be, "that we had not as yet taken a single town."

In answer to these reasons of the ministry and their adherents, it was replied, that the commercial distresses of this country were real and cogent reasons against the most absurd and destructive war that England was ever engaged in; a war of a few privileged and interested individuals against the rights of mankind. That the people of this country had a right to insist upon an explanation from his majesty's ministers, and to know to what extent, for what purpose, they were suffering the calamities of war, spilling
their

their blood, losing their trade, and increasing their taxes. Could this country look on, while the despots of Russia, Austria, and Prussia, seized and plundered Poland, without being *alarmed* more at the combination of tyrants, than at some intemperate expressions in a democratic assembly? It was alledged, that there were many reasons to prove that this conduct of Russia and her ambitious allies, was more dangerous to England than the irregular conduct of the enthusiasts for liberty in France: time would dissipate that spirit; but when will the usurpations of deliberate tyranny be given up? How dangerous, therefore, must it be to the liberties of Englishmen to join a combination of tyrants by profession? With respect to what was alledged concerning the difficulty of treating with any of the parties in France, it was observed, that it signified little with what party we treated; it was well known that the whole French nation were desirous of being on good terms with Great Britain; and that being the case, as peace was so desirable to both nations, it was of little consequence through what medium it was obtained.

Mr. Fox's motion was rejected by a great majority.

As we are upon the subject of the war, it may not be improper in this place, to notice the treaties and alliances which our ministry have formed with a view to that object, and the stipulations to which it has pledged us with foreign powers.

On the twenty-fifth of March, lord Grenville and S. Comte Woronzow signed a convention at London, on behalf of his Britannic majesty and the empress of Russia; in which their majesties agree to employ their respective forces in carrying on the "just and necessary" war in which they are engaged against France; and they reciprocally promise *not to lay down their arms*, but by common consent. Their majesties further engage, to shut all their ports against French ships, not to permit the exportation, in any case, from the said ports for France, of any military or naval stores, or corn, grain, salt meat, or other provisions; and to take all other measures for injuring France. Their majesties moreover agree to protect and extend the commerce between their respective subjects, and to proceed without delay to the formation of a definitive arrangement for a treaty of alliance, &c.

The next treaty is between his Britannic majesty and the king of Sardinia, signed at London, the twenty-fifth of April. The principal feature of this treaty we cannot entirely approve, since it subjects Great Britain to a payment

payment of two hundred thousand pounds a year to the king of Sardinia, and three months in advance, while the services which his Sardinian majesty has at any time rendered, or is to render to the people of this country, are neither enumerated nor stipulated in the treaty. His majesty of Great Britain further engages, to furnish to his Sardinian majesty, at the expence of the English nation, a respectable fleet of ships, to be sent into the Mediterranean, and to be employed, as circumstances may permit, against the naval forces which the French may have in that quarter.

A treaty has also been concluded between his highness the prince of Hesse Cassel and his Britannic majesty: the former is to furnish eight thousand men for the war, during three years, in return for which the English nation are to pay one-hundred thousand pounds levy-money, and fifty-six thousand pounds sterling per annum for six years.

But the article most offensive to humanity in this treaty is, that the *lives* of men are actually bartered away like any common commodity; that the greater the havock, the more will be the profits of their master, since Great Britain is actually under contract to pay a certain sum for every slaughtered victim.

On the second of May, Mr. Duncombe presented a petition to the house of commons on behalf of the inhabitants of Sheffield, signed by eight thousand persons, praying for a parliamentary reform. But the petition was rejected by a great majority, as not being drawn up in language sufficiently respectful. Mr. Whitbread, the same day, presented a petition from the inhabitants of Birmingham, signed by two thousand seven hundred and twenty persons, to the same effect, which met with a better reception, and was ordered to be received by a very great majority.

This important question came before the house of commons in a formal manner, on the sixth of May, when petitions from Derby and Westminster were received, and from several other places. The same day, Mr. Grey presented a petition from the Society of Friends of the People. This petition took nearly half an hour in reading, and among other observations, stated, that a majority of the whole house of commons is elected by less than fifteen hundred persons; or, in other words, by the two hundredth part of the people to be represented. This petition was strongly defended by the friends of the measure, and as violently opposed by the ministry.

The debate was adjourned till the following day, when it was resumed with great vehemence, and was prolonged till four o'clock in the morning: the house then divided upon the petition presented by Mr. Grey, and forty-one votes appeared for referring it to a committee, and two hundred and eighty-two against it.

Mr. Whitbread, on the twelfth of June, called the attention of the house of commons, to a paper called *The World*, dated the twenty-seventh of May, containing a scandalous reflection on one of the managers appointed by that house, to conduct the impeachment against Mr. Hastings. It was there stated, that the archbishop of York had said, "that it was impossible for him to sit silent, to listen to the illiberal conduct of the managers; that they examined a witness, as if he was not a witness but a pick-pocket, and that if Marat or Roberespierre were present, they could not conduct the impeachment in a more scandalous manner, &c." This, Mr. Whitbread was disposed to consider as an insult not only on the manager, but also on the house of commons itself. He could have wished to have confined himself to the learned prelate who uttered this disrespectful reflection, but he found that he could reach him only through the innocent printer of a paper. The house, however, did not appear perfectly to sympathise with the feelings of Mr. Whitbread on this occasion, as the motion was not successful.

I R E L A N D.

The embodying of the militia in this kingdom, has created riots and disturbances in different parts. At Castlereagh in particular, on the twenty-eighth of June, several persons were killed, and the mob withstood a party of the military for some hours. Subsequent to that time there have been several alarming assemblages of rioters and armed men in the other parts of the kingdom, and in attempting to quell them, the military have killed many, and have only dispersed the insurgents, at the expence of several of their own men.

The government in Ireland, apprehensive of the consequences which might attend popular meetings, have passed into a law, an act "to prevent illegal assemblies of the people." Upon the second reading of this bill in the house of commons, July the seventeenth, Mr. Grattan opposed it with all his usual force and eloquence, and asserted that the
bill

bill would disturb that tranquillity which it affected to preserve—that the preamble which denominates as unlawful, all assemblies of men delegated by the people, for the purpose of deliberating on matters of public concern, was false, and not declaratory of the law as it stands or has stood. In support of the rights of the people, he adduced some of the first law authorities—Coke, Blackstone, and Hawkins—all of whom agree in declaring that no assembly can be unlawful, unless they meet to carry an illegal purpose into effect, or to effect a legal purpose in an illegal manner, or assemble in such circumstances as naturally induce terror and apprehension for the public peace, as when a number of men meet, *armed*, in order to redress grievances, &c. and those assemblies described by the bill were not of this class, since a meeting of peaceable men only, for the purpose of promoting a petition to parliament, was attended by none of those circumstances of terror. To prove that deputed assemblies were not considered as unlawful in England, he read from a British news-paper of a late date, the resolutions of a meeting of delegates from the protestant dissenters of that country, with a member of parliament for its president, the object of which was to obtain a repeal of the test act. It was contended to be, not only false in point of law, but also a strong and improper reflection on the brightest passages in the histories of Great Britain and Ireland. Had such a law as this existed, previous to the convention in England at the Revolution, or previous to the first meeting at Dungannon, neither of these countries would now be free. He added, that the bill was directly adverse to the constitution, and effectually destroyed its regenerating power, by incapacitating the people from acting in cases of importance by delegation, the only way by which they can act with constitutional energy.

When this bill was brought into the house of lords in Ireland, a protest was entered against its committal, signed *Leinster, Arran, and Charlemont*, upon the ground that the law was already sufficient to prevent really riotous and illegal meetings, and that the present bill would restrain the subject in the exercise of some of his dearest rights.

The bill enacts, that all persons assembling under the plea of being *elected to represent* the people of this realm, for the purpose of petitioning for an alteration of matters established by law in Church and state, shall and may be apprehended by any sheriff or peace officer. But the act provides, that nothing therein contained shall tend to pre-

vent the undoubted right of his majesty's subjects to petition his majesty, or either or both houses of parliament, for redress of any public or private grievances.

EAST INDIA COMPANY.

The house of commons resolved itself into a committee on the government and trade of India on the twenty-third of April; and Mr. secretary Dundas apologised to the house for the introduction of propositions which were in contradiction to the opinions of the best political writers. Those writers had unequivocally disapproved of establishing a mercantile company as the organ of government for a great country; and yet such an establishment he was about to propose. The opinion too of these speculative politicians was, that a free trade was best calculated to produce all the advantages of a commercial intercourse with India; and yet he should recommend an exclusive corporation, in which he thought himself warranted by practice, in contradiction to theory.

The trade to India, he observed, in its present state, employed eighty-one thousand ton of shipping, and seven thousand seamen; foreign commodities to the amount of seven hundred thousand pounds a year were imported; and British commodities, to the amount of more than a million, formed the export. Taken in all its forms, the trade added seven millions annually to the circulation of this country. Among these statements the right honourable secretary had the candour to confess, that all these advantages were not to be attributed to the *exclusive* trade, and that they might be possessed in a certain degree under a *free* trade. A change in the system of government and trade might, however, he observed, produce alarming convulsions in India; the natives of the east are much governed by habits and opinions. Lord Clive, the great founder of our territorial possessions in India—greater in the arrangements which he made for peace, than even in the victory of Plassey, thought their opinions and prejudices so much to be respected, that he agreed to hold all the conquered territory by a grant from the Great Mogul. The right honourable gentleman then adverted to the conduct of Oliver Cromwell, and reprobated what many have supposed to be the best regulation of that usurper, the abolition of the monopoly of the India company. When government, in 1688, wanted money, they granted a charter to a new company for the sum of two millions of money, and

and under this new birth their affairs have flourished for a series of years.

In order, however, to encourage, in some degree, private adventurers in Asiatic commerce, he said that he would propose, that the company should be obliged to provide shipping, at a moderate rate of freight, to carry out goods to India, for all who might choose to send them; and to bring home in raw materials, or any other shape, the fortunes or adventures of individuals. This mode, he thought, would afford all the benefits we hoped in speculation, without endangering those which we actually possessed.

Mr. Francis rose as an advocate for wresting the government of the territorial possessions in India, out of the hands of the company. He thought that the proposal of vesting the government in them, was only a *mask* for the purpose of enabling the ministry to carry on views which that house ought to resist. He asked, whether government has not, in fact, the whole patronage of India through the medium of the court of directors? He contradicted the assertion, that it would hurt the feelings of the natives to be governed by the king of Great Britain instead of the company: nine-tenths of them, he said, were ignorant of the subject, and did not know the meaning of the word *company*; indeed many of them supposed the East India company to be an old woman locked up in a *zenana*. He entirely disapproved of the plan proposed by Mr. Dundas, because it would have all the bad effects of a junction of trade and government; while, at the same time, the whole patronage and government of India would be really in the hands of ministry.

Mr. secretary Dundas, on the third of May, moved a resolution for regulating the trade and government of India, to the following purport, viz. "That it appears to be fit and proper to continue to the East India company their exclusive trade within the limits now enjoyed by them, for a further term of twenty years, to be computed from the first of March 1794, liable to be discontinued at the end of such period, if three years notice shall previously be given by parliament; subject nevertheless to the regulations herein after specified, for promoting the export of goods, wares, and merchandizes, of the growth or manufacture of Great Britain or Ireland, and for encouraging individuals to carry on trade to and from the East Indies."

To this resolution it was objected, that it went to the full extent of making the trade of India exclusive in favour

of the India company, while other resolutions had held out a probability that individuals would be allowed to participate in that commerce; that the whole was nothing more than allowing the company to hire ships to be afterwards let to separate traders; and that this was an oblique mode, and had only the *appearance* of laying open the trade. In another stage of this bill, when the clause for enabling his majesty to appoint two additional commissioners for managing India affairs, was read, it was strongly contended that the fixed salaries of these commissioners would add to that "influence of the crown," which the parliament in the year 1780, had declared "ought to be diminished."

It was emphatically asked, whether the same gentlemen, who had on former occasions expressed these sentiments against the influence of the crown, could reconcile such a measure as the present with that opinion. Let them openly declare whether they have altered their sentiments: Let them say whether they were then right; and if so, whether that influence has since been decreased.

Mr. Wilberforce proposed several clauses for the promotion of the Christian religion, and for sending out missionaries with proper provision to India, and obliging all the companies ships above seven hundred tons, to employ a chaplain; but by the influence of the India company, these clauses were thrown out in the commons. When the bill was in the house of lords, the bishop of London said he meant to move for some appointment for chaplains, but understanding that the board of controul and the directors had full power to make regulations for this purpose, he was inclined to leave it to their management. Though several of the bishops pleaded the necessity of attending to so important an object, the bill passed, to the disgrace of the nation, without any clause whatever to this effect.

WEST INDIES.

A dispatch has been received from major general Cuyler, by Mr. secretary Dundas, dated head quarters, Tobago, April eighteenth, 1793, containing an account of the capture of that island;—as the number of French forces there were very small, the British incurred but very little loss in the reduction of the island.

Admiral sir John Laforey arrived from the West India station in London, about July the twenty-fourth, and brought intelligence that admiral Gardner, in consequence of the advices he had received of certain disputes in Marti-

nique, had determined to make a descent upon that island, and had accordingly landed about three thousand men, collected from the other islands; but though parties ran high before his appearance, he found that a national enemy had so far united them as to make it hopeless for him to take the place by a *coup de main*, and he had therefore re-imbarked his troops.

N O O T K A S O U N D.

The dispute with the court of Spain concerning Nootka Sound, which lately cost this nation four millions of money, can scarcely be out of the recollection of our readers. When the convention with Spain was debated in the house of commons, it was then observed that it was framed in vague and indefinite terms, which rendered it liable to future disputes. Some late dispatches from Nootka Sound seem in some measure to verify this observation.

The *Dædalus* store-ship, in the service of Great Britain, arrived at Nootka about July 1792, and conveyed some dispatches from England to captain Vancouver, in which he was directed to receive those territories which the Spaniards had seized from the English in April 1789. Towards the latter part of August, captain Vancouver, who is on the north-west coast of America on a voyage of discovery, entered Nootka Sound. After some letters had passed between him and the Spanish commandant of that place, on the subject of surrendering the territories in question, these gentlemen discovered, that their ideas of the leading articles of the convention, were considerably different; captain Vancouver expecting that the whole of the lands, harbours, &c. contained in, or surrounding Nootka Sound, with a post sixteen leagues to the southward, called *Port Cou*, or *Cloyoquat*, were the places of which he was to be put in full possession, on the part of his Britannic majesty. The Spanish governor, on the contrary, guiding himself by the first article of the convention, with which his private orders perfectly agreed, was willing to cede only that place of which the British subjects had been dispossessed, which, on a full examination, appeared to be a spot of land, as captain Vancouver expresses it, "little more than a hundred yards in extent, any way." The buildings, &c. dwindled to one hut. The British captain refuses to hoist the English flag on these terms, and therefore the Spaniards *will keep possession of Nootka Sound.*

P O L A N D.

This oppressed country seems again disposed to resist the *infamous* designs of its enemies, and to appeal to the justice and humanity of the neutral powers. On the twenty-fourth of June, there was an extraordinary diet at Grodno. The notes from the ministers of the courts of Petersburg and Berlin, urging the appointment of a *delegation* to discuss the proposed partition of the republic, being read, the king, who has been with some reason accused of timidity and supineness, once more exerted his resolution, and, supported by a majority of the diet, including all the deputies from Lithuania, opposed the appointment of the delegation, contending with great warmth and perseverance, that the only proper course was to send ministers to the foreign courts in correspondence with Poland, to make known the critical situation of the republic, and to intreat their mediation with the empress and the king of Prussia. The marshal, on the contrary, was for the appointment of a delegation; and the question being called for, adjourned the diet. The following day the debate was renewed, and the majority in favour of the proposition was increased instead of being diminished.

A kind of middle course was proposed by the bishop of Hossakowski, of which the king, in an excellent speech, shewed the inconsistency. On the third day of the diet, the marshal insisted, that the demands of the courts of Petersburg and Berlin, with respect to the delegation, should be finally decided on; the majority insisted, that the other propositions should be first put to the vote; upon which the diet resolved,

“That the chancellor shall be enjoined to send with all possible dispatch to the ministers of the republic at foreign courts, instructions to represent to those courts the critical situation of Poland; to remind them of the relation subsisting between them and the republic; and to claim their mediation with the courts of Petersburg and Berlin, in order to induce these courts to restore to the republic the provinces they have seized, and also to withdraw their troops from the territories of the republic.” As Poland had no minister at Vienna since the recall of M Woyna, his former title and powers were restored to him.

The marshal again pressed the appointment of a delegation. The majority insisted on first deciding, *With whom,*

in what manner, and to what extent the delegation should be authorised to treat. This modification gave rise to a second —“ that the delegation should be authorised to treat *only* with the court of Petersburg.” The majority adopted this second modification; and the question being put, it was ultimately decided, by one hundred and seven votes against twenty-four, that the delegation shall treat with the imperial court exclusively.

G E R M A N Y.

The new partition of Poland has induced the emperor, in an official note, to express his surprise that the courts of Petersburg and Berlin had appropriated to themselves a much greater portion of Poland than was agreed upon at the convention of Pilnitz; the emperor however professes, that he does not wish that this opening should give the least umbrage to those powers; but hoped that they will literally conform to the convention which took place between them on the subject of this partition.

In consequence of this measure of the emperor, it is expected that a new convention will take place between the three courts; by virtue of which, Austria, if not indemnified by the acquisition of another district, is to have a portion of Poland, of the same extent with that of the other two powers.

S W E D E N.

The court of Stockholm published a proclamation in June, in which it was most solemnly asserted, that the ill reports which were spread of the bad situation of this country were without foundation; that the situation of the kingdom is as good as could be expected, after a destructive war, and a great revolution; that it is in the best understanding with foreign powers; that public credit increases; the national debts are paid by degrees; that the king's household observes the strictest œconomy; that the debts of the late king, amounting to one hundred and fifty thousand rix-dollars, are all liquidated; and the expences of the court diminished above thirty-three thousand rix-dollars; and that, although it cannot yet repeal the taxes, yet it is certain that no fresh burdens are necessary. This proclamation concludes with an assurance, that during the minority of the king, no diet will be convoked, as being absolutely contrary to the will of the late monarch,

F L O R E N C E.

The British ambassador, lord Hervey, having given notice to the secretary of state of the Grand Duke of Tuscany, of the arrival of the combined British and Spanish fleets in the Mediterranean, and expressed his scruples respecting the neutrality adopted by the Grand Duke towards the belligerent powers, received for answer from the secretary of state, that the Grand Duke would not depart from the neutrality he had hitherto observed.

On what grounds the ambassador was led to construe a declaration of strict neutrality into a cause of offence, we are ignorant; but his lordship replied by letter, that since the Duke of Tuscany intended to adhere to this profession, it must be remembered, that the continuance of this neutrality will depend upon the manner in which the *allied powers shall consider it*, and on the opinion which they will entertain with respect to the reasons which his royal highness may have for such a conduct, or on the inconvenience which must arise to these powers, from allowing the immense resources which are drawn from this state, for the purpose of supporting the common enemy, while so many subjects and treasures are *sacrificed* to subdue them. The British minister adds, "I will wait the orders of my sovereign, before I shall expatiate any further on this subject, and will communicate the sensation which this determination may have on the British cabinet."

Lord Hervey followed up this declaration by a circular letter to the foreign ministers resident in Florence, informing them of these transactions, and his correspondence on the subject, in order that they might transmit to their respective courts the conduct of the Duke of Tuscany, which is so entirely different from that which animates at present the different powers of Europe. His lordship concludes his circular letter by observing, "that he doubts not but it is deemed necessary to *guide* this conduct in a manner more suitable with the present circumstances, and the *just* views of the allied powers."

Such is the state of this transaction, as published in the papers; but, if we are not misinformed, it has been retorted on the British ambassador from a certain quarter—"That their interference in the affairs of neutral nations was the principal complaint made by Great Britain against the French, and one of the chief prettexts for the war."

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